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CONSIDERATION OF REPORTS SUBMITTED BY STATES PARTIES UNDER ARTICLE 18 OF THE CONVENTION

Initial reports of States parties

NEW ZEALAND

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INTRODUCTION

It is established New Zealand practice to ratify international conventions only when the provisions of those conventions are already implemented by New Zealand law and practice. Where implementation is substantially complete but there remain one or two provisions where it has not been possible, or where there are doubts, New Zealand would enter a reservation to the provision concerned.

Accordingly, as at 20 December 1984 when New Zealand ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, New Zealand law and practice were in conformity with the Convention except for the areas where reservations were entered.

PART I (a) Describe the actual, general, social, economic, political and legal framework within which New Zealand approaches the elimination of discrimination against women in all its forms, as defined in the Convention

New Zealand is a western style democracy with a market-based economy substantially dependent on the export of primary products. Of a population of 3.3 million people, 85% are of European origin, 9% of Maori origin, 3% are non-New Zealand Polynesians and 3% have other racial origins (such as Indian, Chinese, Vietnamese).* The majority of New Zealand's population live in urban areas and rural settlements, only some 4% of the total now living and working on farms. The great majority of New Zealanders who practice a religion are Christians, for the most part Protestant denominations and Roman Catholics. The Christian ethic is the prevailing influence in the community.

Footnote*: Source: deduced from 1981 national census figures published in New Zealand Official Yearbook 1985, (Department of Statistics) P.85.

According to Department of Statistics figures, in the year ending March 1985 New Zealand had a per capita income of NZ $11,231 (US$6177). There is no relevant distinction between urban and rural, including farming, incomes. New Zealand society has developed along lines similar to other western communities with all that implies by way of social and economic change including the breaking down of class structures and social barriers and the development of women's role in society. There are in addition some elements which are distinctive to New Zealand society. There are two main cultural streams: that of the Maori people whose roots and traditions go back a thousand years or more in New Zealand, and that of the European, predominantly British, settlers who have come to New Zealand over the last 140 years. Both cultures are vigorous and, within the context of their own racial and traditional values, may have differing approaches to women's issues. At the same time women have long played a prominent role in most sectors of New Zealand society. In particular they have effectively influenced social policy - for example in the shape of health, education and social welfare systems. In politics they have been numerically less prominent, although in 1893 New Zealand women were accorded equal voting rights with men - it was the first country to do so - and in 1919 they were granted the right to stand for Parliament.

Four main factors have had particular relevance for women in the last quarter of this century*: changing demands of the economic system; modern advances in household technology; the availability and acceptance of reliable forms of fertility control; and the influence of and support given to the evolving feminist movement.

PART I (b) <u>Any legal and other measures adopted to implement the Convention or their absence as well as any effects which ratification of the Convention has had on New Zealand's actual, general, social, economic, political and legal framework since entry into force of the Convention for New Zealand</u>

As already explained, New Zealand law at the time of ratification met the requirements of the Convention, except for those areas where reservations were entered. The reservations related to:

Footnote * Refer also Annex B : "New Zealand Women: Their Changing Situation 1970-84"

i maternity leave with pay: the right is reserved not to apply the provisions of Article 11, 2(b)

ii the Armed Forces and law enforcement forces: the right is reserved not to apply the provisions of the Convention in so far as they are inconsistent with policies relating to recruitment into or service in:

a the Armed Forces which reflect either directly or indirectly the fact that members of such forces are required to serve on armed forces aircraft or vessels and in situations involving armed combat or;

b the law enforcement forces which reflect either directly or indirectly the fact that members of such forces are required to serve in situations involving violence or threat of violence.

iii employment of women on underground work or mines: New Zealand is still bound by ILO Convention 45 concerning the Employment of Women on Underground Work in Mines of All Kinds.

Legislation specially enacted to give women equal rights with men goes back a very long way and has been a gradual process of development rather than a sudden occurrence. The common law treated women and men equally in many respects; and in other areas such as health and education, which are services provided by the State, equal treatment for women and men was never questioned. The Education Act of 1877, for example, established a national system of free, secular and compulsory education for all children regardless of sex. Nevertheless there was a deliberate stepping up throughout the 1970s, particularly in the area of equal opportunity for employment and recognising women as independent persons. The thrust of recent legislation has been to remove all forms of discrimination between women and men. In consequence, for example, men may now be given the care of children, if this is in the children's best interest, and a woman may be held responsible for her husband's maintenance, if this is appropriate. Examples of noteworthy legislation before 1970 benefiting women are:

Women's Suffrage (which gave women the vote)	1893
Women's Parliamentary Rights Act (which allowed women to stand for Parliament)	1919
Government Service Equal Pay Act	1960

The following legislation has been passed since 1970:

- Domestic Proceedings Amendment Act 1971 - Extended provisions for maintenance orders.

- Equal Pay Act 1972 - Established the principle of equal pay for equal work without discrimination on the basis of sex.

- Social Security Amendment Act 1973 - Established the domestic purposes benefit for solo parents.

- Accident Compensation Amendment Act 1973 - Extended compensation provisions to non-earners.

- Matrimonial Property Act 1976 - Provided for a more equitable division of property on the dissolution of a marriage.

- Domicile Act 1976 - Provided that a woman's domicile does not have to follow that of her husband.

- Social Security Amendment Act 1977 - Introduced national superannuation without discrimination.

- Human Rights Commission Act 1977 - Prohibited discrimination in such areas as employment, and access to goods and services on the grounds of sex or marital status.

- Citizenship Act 1977 - Accorded all New Zealand citizens the same rights with respect to the citizenship of spouses and children.

- Social Security Amendment Act 1979 - Provided for the payment of sickness and unemployment benefits to women and men on an equal basis.

- Evidence Amendment Act 1980 - Provided some restrictions on the cross-examination or presentation of evidence pertaining to a victim's sexual history.

- Family Courts Act 1980 - Removed family law to special court with special support services.

- Family Proceedings Act 1980 - Introduced no fault dissolution of marriage, and revised the law relating to matrimonial and domestic proceedings.

- Guardianship Amendment Act 1980 - Introduced custodial provisions which ensure that the welfare of the child is paramount and no one person can be preferred as custodial parent on the basis of sex.

- Maternity Leave and Employment Protection Act 1980 - Guaranteed up to 26 weeks' unpaid leave to most women workers expecting a baby or planning to adopt a young child.

- Factories and Commerical Premises Amendment Act 1981 - Lifted restrictions on women working during night hours.

- Domestic Protection Act 1982 - Extended protection to the victims of domestic violence in whatever situation this occurs.

- Estate and Gift Duties Amendment Act 1983 - Provided for a gift duty exemption where a matrimonial property agreement results in the non-owner spouse receiving half the matrimonial property.

In the period since New Zealand's ratification of the Convention, the New Zealand Government has passed three acts on the issue of rape - aiming to reduce the trauma for those involved in court hearings, and removing spousal immunity from rape charges. These acts were the Crimes Amendment Bill No 3, Evidence Amendment Bill No 2, Summary Proceedings Bill No 4, all of December 1985. The Ministry of Women's Affairs was established by law in March 1985.

In further implementation of the policy on women outlined by the present Government when it came to office (Annex C), the requirement for further legislation - eg providing for permanent part-time work - will be considered as appropriate.

PART I (c) Describe whether there are any institutes or authorities which have as their task to ensure that the principle of equality between men and women is complied with in practice, and what remedies are available to women who have suffered discrimination

The Human Rights Commission Act 1977 expressly provides a procedure for ensuring that there is no discrimination against women, on grounds of race, sex or religion in the areas of employment, accommodation, landholding, access to goods and services and access to public places and public facilities. This procedure is set out in Annex D. Section S.38(b) of the Act described the remedies available under the Act where a defendant is judged to have breached the provisions of the Act.

PART I (d) Describe the means used to promote and ensure the full development and advancement of women for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms in all fields on a basis of equality with men

In addition to enforcement of relevant legislation and the procedures provided in the Human Rights Commission Act, the Government has created the political means for ensuring the full development and advancement of women by the establishment of a Minister for Women's Affairs with full Cabinet ranking and a department of state, the Ministry of Women's Affairs. A Maori Women's Unit has been specially established within the Ministry. Both the Minister and the Ministry are active in promoting and monitoring the progress being made by women to take advantage of their rights and freedoms. Priorities for the Ministry were discussed in a series of regional forums held in late 1984 (see Annex E). Government departments in particular have been a target for positive action programmes. (See Part II of New Zealand's response to the UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984 and Annex F "The mid-term progress report on the implementation of Labour's programme of equality for women.")

There have also been established by Government a number of Committees concerned with the promotion of women. Those at present in being are:

- The National Advisory Committee on the Employment of Women

- The Women's Advisory Committee of the Vocational Training Council

- The Equal Employment Opportunities Unit in the State Service Commission

Details of the above are given in Annex A. Of the other committees described in Annex A, the National Advisory Committee on Women and Education (NACWE) is now being re-formed as the Women's Advisory Committee on Education. The Advisory Committee on Women's Affairs (ACWA), established in 1981 to evaluate, recommend and coordinate policy on issues affecting women, has been disbanded with the establishment of the Ministry of Women's Affairs, to which its functions have passed. The Women's Appointment File (WAF) now receives its administrative assistance from the Ministry.

- The Women's Health Committee, a standing committee of the Board of Health, advises the Minister of Health on all policy matters relating to current and future needs in the field of women's health.

PART I (e) Describe whether the provisions of the Convention can be invoked before, and directly enforced by, the court, other tribunals or administrative authorities or whether the provisions of the convention

have to be implemented by way of internal laws or administrative regulations in order to be enforced by the authorities concerned

The provisions of international treaties ratified by New Zealand do not automatically become law in New Zealand.

The provisions of the Women's Convention are implemented and protected in New Zealand by legislation. This legislation can be invoked in the Courts. In the case of the Human Rights Commission Act, the Act itself establishes a procedure for complaints and their remedies.

PART I : COMMENT

Overall there is no differentiation by sex in New Zealand law: the legal position of men and women is identical. Both in employment and in society generally women are increasingly taking advantage of the opportunities opened to them. The situation is not static.

While social attitudes have moved favourably towards recognition of women's worth, however, it cannot be said that women and men themselves practise full equality in all respects in society and the workplace. For example:

- despite the achievement of higher levels of education for women*, fewer women than men take science or economic courses at university.

- there is still only a small proportion of women in top administrative and executive positions.

- women still tend to choose certain types of employment. Thus women remain the majority in clerical/secretarial work and other traditional occupations such as nursing and garment manufacturing.

- women in national and local politics remain in a minority.

The reasons for this situation are various, but would include the following:

- women may prefer to remain in the home working for their families rather than enter the paid work force.

- while economic circumstances may make a double income for families desirable, day care for children may not be readily available.

Footnote * : See Annex B pp 985 and 986

- there has not yet been sufficient lead time for women to qualify for top positions.

- for Maori women there is the added difficulty of belonging to a minority group.

Nevertheless the problems are recognised and solutions are being looked for. Emphasis is being placed, for example, on promoting a range and diversity of early childhood care and education facilities. It is recognised that the development of women's attitudes is as important as that of men's in achieving change.

PART II

SPECIFIC INFORMATION IN RELATION TO EACH PROVISION OF THE CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN

(This part should be read in conjunction with New Zealand's response to the UN Questionnaire to Governments for the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace - June 1984.)

Article 2

a-f See the notes in Part I c on the Human Rights Commission Act 1977. New Zealand does not have a written Constitution.

g There are no penal provisions in New Zealand specifically relating to women.

Article 3

See Part I on legislation (Human Rights Commission Act, Equal Pay Act) national machineries and programmes (paragraphs 8-19) and paragraph 24 below.

Article 4

Under Section 28 of the Human Rights Commission Act 1977, the Human Rights Commission may approve "any special plan or programme submitted to it by any person if it considers that -

(i) the plan or programme will assist or advance particular persons or groups of persons, being in each case persons of a particular sex or marital status; and

(ii) those persons or groups need or may reasonably be supposed to need assistance or advancement in order to achieve an equal place with other members of the community."

The national machineries and institutions which have been set up to assist women achieve equality with men have been listed in Part I of this report. As described in Annex F, many government departments (and agencies and private sector agencies such as banks and the New Zealand Employers' Federation) have "positive" or "affirmative action" policies and many have set up special equal opportunities units.

Article 5

a Measures to modify social and cultural patterns of the conduct of men and women, with a view to achieving the elimination of prejudices and customary and all other practices which are based on the idea of the inferiority or the superiority of either of the sexes or on stereotyped roles for men and women include "positive action programmes" such as the Vocational Training Council/Women's Advisory Committee's "Women Across the Workforce" and the Department of Labour's "Girls Can Do Anything" media campaigns; the State Services Commission/Public Service Association guidelines for departments on sexual harassment (1983 and 1986); the State Services Commission's efforts to eliminate sexist vocabulary from their publications; and efforts to remove sex stereotyping in the education syllabus (see also the notes for Article 10c below. There is, however, no established move to abolish single-sex schools although there has been a trend towards the provision of more co-educational than single-sex schools. As at 1 July 1984, of the 315 state secondary schools, 214 were co-educational. Most of the 88 private schools were single-sex).

b While there is no special educational programme which focuses on the importance of maternity as a social function and the common responsibility of men and women in the upbringing and development of their children, the relevant legislation expressly states that the interests of the child must take priority. In cases of broken homes responsibility for a child could devolve on either parent.

Article 6

Slave dealing, which includes debt bondage and serfdom, is a crime under The Crimes Act 1961 and is punishable by imprisonment for a term not exceeding 14 years. Prostitution is not per se illegal, but it is an offence punishable by five years imprisonment to live off the earnings of the same or run/manage a brothel or procure sexual intercourse for reward.

Article 7

a Women have had the same voting rights as men since 1893 and have had the right to stand for Parliament since 1919. At present there are two women Cabinet Ministers (out of 20), 12 women members of Parliament (out of 95 - ie 13 percent) and a growing (though still unequal) number of women in top administrative positions. Women are represented on local bodies (14 percent) and there are both women Mayors (7 percent) and women councillors. The Local Government Amendment Act 1985 introduced a new system

for the determination of remuneration of local government office holders which will make it easier for homemakers and working people to stand for election to local authorities.

b There are no legal barriers to the appointment of women to Cabinet or to positions in the Public Service or to the performance of any public function at any level of Government.

c There are no legal restrictions against female participation in non-governmental organisations and associations concerned with the public and political life of the country but there are still some attitudinal barriers to womens' participation in some areas.

Article 8

Women are appointed as Ambassadors, to other diplomatic positions and as members of official New Zealand delegations to inter-governmental meetings where they represent New Zealand. As such they participate in the work of international organisations.

Article 9

1 The provisions of the Citizenship Act 1977 provide that women have the same rights as men in regard to nationality. These rights are not affected by marriage.

2 The Citizenship Act 1977 ensures this. For details of the Citizenship Act 1977 refer to Annex D, pages 23-24.

Article 10

Education in New Zealand at all levels and of all types is legally open equally to women and men. Some positive action programmes have been established to increase female entry into "non-traditional" areas of vocational training and such programmes should help overcome remaining attitudinal barriers on the part of either sex.

a The Department of Labour established in 1984 the FAIR (Female Apprenticeship Incentive for Recruitment) with the objective of encouraging employers to enter into contracts of apprenticeship with young women. The increase in women entering non-traditional apprenticeships has risen from 125 in 1979 to 196 in 1984. The "Girls Can Do Anything" or "Women Across the Workforce" campaigns (see Annex G Part II A,

Section 3.2.1 of New Zealand's Response to the UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984) are examples of other programmes encouraging the training/education of women in non-traditional areas.

b New Zealand females have access to the same curricula, same examinations, teaching staff with qualifications of the same standard and school premises and equipment of the same quality.

c Part II, Section C ("Education") of the New Zealand Response to the UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984 (Annex H) outlines some of the activities that the Former National Advisory Committee on Women in Education initiated to remove sex stereotyping. These included new school syllabuses in home economics and workshop craft for boys and girls (2.2.1); the replacement (in 1980) of two former handbooks on physical education, one for boys and one for girls, with one called "Fitness for Living"; and the encouragement of coeducational teaching of physical education (2.2.2). As noted in paragraph 2.2.4 of Part II C of the New Zealand Response "all syllabuses and materials produced are for all students irrespective of sex. Every effort is made to remove elements of sex stereotyping and to treat all students as equal. The main obstacle is a conservative community and, to a lesser extent, teaching force. In an attempt to overcome this, the Department of Education has published pamphlets on equal opportunities in schools."

d & e Women share the same opportunities as men to benefit from scholarships and other study grants and for access to programmes for continuing education.

f There is a tendency rather for New Zealand women to attain higher levels of secondary education than men and they tend to outnumber men both in secondary school attendance and completion (p985 of Annex B).

g The Government conducted in 1985, a Sports Development Enquiry and Recreation Review. Policy recommendations to ensure equity for women's sport were made in the chapter on women and sport prepared by the Enquiry Committee (attached in Annex I).

h The school syllabus from junior primary to senior secondary classes for both sexes includes health education which places emphasis on caring for others and being sensitive to their needs, and on the importance of honest, responsible, healthy relationships. Access to advice on family planning is freely available to all those over 16 years of age, regardless of sex, and those under 16 under certain guidelines (see New Zealand Response to UN

Questionnaire to Governments June 1984, Part II B, Section 2.3). A new health education syllabus containing information on human development and relationships and including an optional section on contraceptive and family planning advice (the school management body, after consultation with the pupils' parents, may decide whether or not to give sex education) was introduced into 4 secondary schools in 1985 and will be taught in 90 in 1986 and in all secondary schools by 1989.

Article 11

1a-c Women and men have the same legal right to work. The Human Rights Commission Act 1977, section 15 provides:

"(1) It shall be unlawful for any person who is an employer, or any person acting or purporting to act on behalf of any person who is an employer;

(a) To refuse or omit to employ any person on work of any description which is available and for which that person is qualified;

(b) To refuse or omit to offer or afford any person the same terms of employment, conditions of work, fringe benefits and opportunities for training, promotion and transfer as are made available for persons of the same or substantially similar qualifications employed in the same or substantially similar circumstances on worth of that description; or

(c) To dismiss any person, or subject any person to any detriment, in circumstances in which other persons employed by that employer on work of that description are not or would not be dismissed or are not or would not be subjected to such detriment - by reason of the sex, marital status or religious or ethical belief of that person. (But see also the full provisions of Section 15 for exceptions.)

d Equal pay was legislated for by the Government Service Equal Pay Act 1960 and the Equal Pay Act 1972 (for the private sector). Factors referred to in Part I explain in large measure the continuation of the lower average in women's earnings.

e There is no discrimination between women and men in the exercise of the right to social security. Part II A, paragraph 3.2.5 of the New Zealand Response to the UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984 (copy attached in Annex J) outlines social security benefits in New Zealand relating to retirement, unemployment, sickness and invalidity.

f Women have the same right as men to protection of health and safety in working conditions. There are no laws specifically to protect the human reproductive organs from chemical (or other) risk, but the Health Department has produced guidelines on working with lead which suggest protective measures for women.

2a The Maternity Leave and Employment Protection Act 1980 (see Annex K taken from New Zealand's Response to the UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984) provides protection against sanctions, or dismissal on the grounds of pregnancy or maternity leave. The Human Rights Commission Act 1977 provides against discrimination in employment on the grounds of marital status.

b New Zealand has not yet legislated for maternity leave with pay. An interdepartmental Officials' Committee was established in 1985 to review the Maternity Leave and Employment Protection Act 1980. It is envisaged that the revised legislation will include provision for paternity leave, thus providing increased choice to parents. The Officials' Committee has also explored the possibilities of providing paid parental leave to either parent at the time of childbirth or adoption and has reported its findings to Cabinet.

c Part II A, Section 3.2.6 of the New Zealand Response to the UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984 (attached in Annex L) provides an outline of child care facilities in New Zealand, noting the shortage of places for children under two and the variance in quality of care. The Government has given priority to providing community-based quality care. The Department of Social Welfare has, in the past year, consulted with groups interested in child care services, and released a discussion paper on the "View of Child Care Funding". A 70 per cent increase in overall funding of child care services was announced in the June 1985 Budget and became effective from 1 October 1985. Additional funding of NZ$2,722 million (US$1,497 million) a year was to provide for increased child care subsidy for parents, staff training programmes and staff, establishment and equipment grants. A Ministerial Working Party was set up in 1985 to make recommendations on the transfer of statutory responsibility for child care services from the Department of Social Welfare to the Department of Education. This move will bring all early childhood services (care and education) together in the same department, in a Division of Early Childhood Services. In addition, the State Services Commission convened a working party to draw up a policy for the provision of child care for public servants. This policy was approved in principle by Cabinet in October 1985.

d See 1f above.

3 It is normal practice for out of date legislation to be reviewed and amended. The work of review, recommendation for reform and development of the law of New Zealand is now to be carried out by the new Law Commission which came into being on 1 February 1986.

Article 12

1 There is no discrimination in law against women in the field of health care. However, the Women's Regional Forums of 1984 (see Annex E page 8 and pages 44 and 45) identified a need for improved practice in health care for women. As noted in Part I(d), page 6 of this report, a new Women's Health Committee was established in July 1984 as a body to advise the Minister of Health on women's health matters.

2 Every woman has access to free pre- and post-natal care and to free medical and hospital services during confinement.

Article 13

a The relevant section of the New Zealand Response to the UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984 on family benefits is attached in Annex M. The family benefit is payable to every mother of a child. However, if the mother does not have full time care of the child, provision exists for payment of the benefit to be made to the father or any other person having the care and control of the child, at the discretion of the Social Security Commission.

b The Human Rights Commission Act 1977 provides that no one is to be discriminated against on the grounds of sex in the provision of credit. The Human Rights Commission has undertaken the dissemination of educational information to advise women on the legal obligation of those providing credits and loans and to offer guidelines to women.

c Women have full legal rights to participate in recreational activities, sports and all aspects of cultural life (see also noted for Article 10, g), but attitudinal barriers still exist and may discourage womens' participation in some areas .

Article 14

Rural women, i.e. those living in rural settlements as well as those on farms (14.7% of the total female population), have the same legal rights as other women and their isolation, and that of their families, has been greatly

reduced by telephone services, radio and television, and modernised transport. In general their standard of living is as high as the national average. Their disadvantages arise from isolation.

Part II K of the New Zealand Response to the UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984 (Annex N) covers rural development/women in agriculture including some difficulties faced by rural women. The Ministry of Women's Affairs has now taken over the role of the former Advisory Committee on Women's Affairs in supporting the rural women's network, "Women in Agriculture" (Wag). This includes provision of administrative and organisational services and assistance with the compilation and distribution of the regular newsleter Wag Mag.

a Rural women have the right to participate in the elaboration and implementation of development planning at all levels. Constraints on the fulfilment of this right include lack of pre-school facilities, school transport problems, the need for improved training facilities in rural areas, the heavy double burden of family care and work on the farm, and some continuing attitudinal discrimination.

b Rural women have access to adequate health care facilities, including information, counselling and services in family planning (but see notes for Article 12(1) above).

c Women have equal access to all social security programmes.

d Rural women have the same theoretical access as urban women to education but transport and distance impose some constraints. The Education Department makes special provision for educating children, both girls and boys, through, for example, correspondence classes and boarding school allowances. Rural Education Activities Programmes were established in rural communities in 1979 with the aim of improving the sharing and coordination of resources. Provision is usually made for itinerant pre-school teachers, guidance/visiting teachers, liaison between schools, and continuing education advisors (for rural women and their children). Each district Education Board has advisors (for rural women and their children). Each district Education Board has advisors to rural schools responsible for assisting with the schools' educational administration and curriculum development. This rural advisory service has been in practice since 1918. Country children receive the same bursaries as the children living outside

university centres to attend university. Both rural and urban dwellers can take advantage of correspondence university courses available at Massey University.

e The Department of Internal Affairs Small Cooperative Enterprises Scheme (SCOPE) and the Work Development Scheme have assisted a number of small enterprises based on alternative approaches to work and organised by women (eg, the Outsized Women's Garment Factory at Patea, various small cottage industry type craft enterprises, and cooperative ventures providing services such as child care, food preparation and expressive arts performance). Some additional funding for these activities comes from the NZ Lottery Board Distribution Committees. Although Lottery Board Distribution Committees do not contribute only to women's projects, a number of projects of specific relevance to women have been assisted which have indirectly assisted women towards economic independence, eg grants to women's refuges and other related organisations. The Ministry of Women's Affairs now operates a Project Fund of NZ$50,000 (US$27,500) per annum which is of particular benefit to especially disadvantaged women - eg self-esteem courses for young unemployed Maori women. The Ministry's information leaflet, which explains the criteria for allocation of grants from the Fund, is attached in Annex O.

f Rural women have the right to participate in all community activities.

g Women as individuals in their own right have a legal right to apply for agriculture loans.

h Rural women in New Zealand have access to adequate housing, sanitation, electricity and water supply, transport and communications.

Article 15

New Zealand law and procedure fully meet the obligations under this article.

Article 16

1a Men and women have the same right to enter into marriage and the same rights within marriage.

b The Family Proceedings Act 1980 provides that a marriage concluded without the free consent of each spouse is void. Absence of consent to marriage has always been a ground for voiding a marriage at common law in New Zealand, and was incorporated into statute law in 1953.

c,d are covered by the relevant legislation listed and
f,g described in Annex A.
& h

e Men and women have equal access to family planning information and education. Legally any woman or man may give consent to be sterilised.

2 The Marriage Act 1955 stipulates that a marriage licence shall not be issued or a marriage solemnised if either of the partners intending marriage is under the age of 16 years; a marriage is not, however, void by reason only of an infringement of these provisions. (ie. if a minor fraudulently obtains a marriage licence he or she is liable to prosecution but the marriage is not invalid. Section 17 of the Marriage Act places the burden of responsibility on the Registrar to satisfy himself that the age requirements have been met.)

The Marriage Act also requires that the marriage of a minor be consented to and that all marriages be registered in accordance with the Act.

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LIST OF ANNEXES

A Part 3 D - "Women, of Section 3, Population of the New Zealand Official Yearbook 1985, pp 111-115. Published by New Zealand Department of Statistics.

B Section 38 "New Zealand Women: Their Changing Situation", 1970-1984, pp 975-1002 of the New Zealand Official Yearbook 1985.

C "Women's Policy", extract from New Zealand Labour Party 1984 Policy Document.

D Part I C (Legislation) of World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace 1976-1985. NZ Response to UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984.

E The 1984 Women's Forums Policy Priorities, Office of the Minister of Women's Affairs, March 1985. */

F The Mid-Term Progress Report on the Implementation of Labour's Programme of Equality for Women. From the Minister of Women's Affairs, January 1986. */

G Section 3.2.1 on Access to Employment and Conditions of Work, of Part II A (Employment) of World Conference/UN Decade for Women. NZ Response to UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984.

H Part II C (Education) of World Conference/UN Decade for Women. NZ Response to UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984.

I Section XII "Women and Sport" of Sport on the Move: Report of the Sports Development Inquiry, Ministry of Recreation and Sport, 1985. */

J Section 3.2.5 on Social Security of Part II A (Employment) of World Conference/UN Decade for Women. NZ Response to UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984.

K Section 3.2.4 on maternity leave of Part II A (Employment) of World Conference/UN Decade for Women. NZ Response to UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984.

L Section 3.2.6 on Child Care Facilities of Part II A (Employment) of World Conference/UN Decade for Women. NZ Response to UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984.

M Extract on Family Benefits from Section 3.2.5 of Part II A (Employment) of World Conference/UN Decade for Women. NZ Response to UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984.
(Please refer to Annex J.)

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*/ These documents are available in English at the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat and can be consulted in the offices of the Branch for the Advancement of Women.

N Part II K (Rural Development) of World Conference/UN Decade for Women: NZ Response to UN Questionnaire to Governments June 1984.

O Project Fund - Ministry of Women's Affairs. */

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*/ This document is available in English at the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat and can be consulted in the offices of the Branch for the Advancement of Women.

Annex A

3 D—WOMEN

In the past 30 years there has been a marked change in the social and economic factors which affect traditional roles in the community. These factors include changes in the structure of the population, in the family cycle and its composition, and employment opportunities available for both men and women.

This process of social and economic change is characteristic of industrialised nations in particular. It has led to increasing attention to the role and status of women, including the commitment of the international community to the United Nations Decade for Women 1976-85, and the adoption of the final text of the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women by the United Nations General Assembly in 1979.

It is in this context that the following government bodies have been established. Their role is, or has been, to advise the Government of the day on particular issues relating to the achievement of equal opportunities for women, and their full integration into all aspects of national life.

Committee on Women—The Committee on Women had its origins in a National Development Council subcommittee established in 1969 and convened by Mrs (now Dame) Miriam Dell, and a paper produced by that subcommittee in 1970 on "The Role of Women in National Development".

In 1974 the NDC subcommittee was raised to full sector council status and its membership was expanded from 3 to 5. At this time it was responsible to the Prime Minister and serviced through the Cabinet Office.

The committee was given responsibility for the implementation of International Women's Year (1975) and established a working party to organise the year's activities. One such activity was an evaluation of the Report of the Parliamentary Select Committee on Women's Rights which had been published in June 1975.

In 1976 the Committee on Women was expanded to a total membership of 12.

Responsibility for the Committee on Women was returned to the Minister for National Development, and the committee was charged with the following tasks:

(a) to promote the objectives of the World Plan of Action for IWY and the UN Decade for Women;
(b) to assess New Zealand's progress towards achievement of these objectives;
(c) to advise the Government through the Minister for National Development on these and all other matters affecting women in New Zealand.

These tasks were expanded in 1978 to include administration of a special project fund of $25,000 per annum, set up to provide assistance for projects of benefit to women.

In 1979, responsibility for the Committee on Women passed to the then Minister of Justice who was appointed to the newly-created Cabinet position of Government Spokesman on Women's Affairs. In 1981 the committee was restructured as the Advisory Committee on Women's Affairs and given expanded terms of reference (see ACWA below).

Advisory Committee on Women's Affairs (ACWA)—The Advisory Committee on Women's Affairs was created from September 1981.

The ACWA's terms of reference were:

(a) to evaluate government policies on the basis of the identified needs of women in New Zealand;
(b) to generate appropriate policies on the basis of the identified needs of women in New Zealand;
(c) to promote the co-ordination of activities, programmes and policies of all agencies relevant to the concerns of women.

Members were appointed by Government, not as representatives of any particular organisations or special interests, but as individuals who were familiar with a wide range of issues affecting women. ACWA originally had 6 members including the Chair, but membership was increased to 7 in 1982 following the dis-establishment of the National Advisory Committee on Women and Education.

The restructuring of the Committee on Women to become the Advisory Committee on Women's Affairs was aimed at increasing the level of impact the Committee had on policy development. In order to provide a co-ordinating link between ACWA and the policy development processes in Government departments, the State Services Commission requested departments to refer all proposals that fell within the terms of reference of ACWA to the ACWA Secretariat, which was staffed by the State Services Commission. It circulated guidelines to assist departments in determining which policy proposals should be referred.

In addition to these, ACWA continued with activities originally undertaken by the Committee on Women, such as administration of the Project Fund (which remained at $25,000), production of a news sheet, promotion of the UN Decade for Women, and maintenance of the women's resources library.

It also housed and provided administrative assistance for the Women's Appointment File (WAF), which is a curriculum vitae resource of over 800 women who are willing and available to serve on government boards and committees. The WAF was set up in 1979 and aims to counteract the imbalance of men and women in public office, and to encourage greater participation by women in the decision-making process. It is managed by a voluntary committee comprising various representatives of voluntary women's organisations.

ACWA also provided an administrative base for a nationwide Women in Agriculture network (WAg). This evolved from a "Focus on Women in Agriculture" initiated by a group of women with an interest in agriculture, education and employment, who began meeting in the offices of the Committee on Women in 1981.

To enable ACWA to deal with its extensive brief, a subcommittee structure was evolved reflecting the areas of concern to ACWA. The subcommittees were convened to respond to particular issues and needs as they arose or were identified. They covered ACWA's priority areas which were Economic Status, Education, Health, Violence, and End of Decade.

ACWA was disbanded when the Ministry of Women's Affairs was established in 1984.

Ministry of Women's Affairs—With the change of Government in July 1984, the number of women members of Parliament increased by four to twelve, and for the first time, there were two women in Cabinet. Hon Ann Hercus was appointed the first Minister of Women's Affairs, as well as Minister of Social Welfare, and Minister of Police. Hon Margaret Shields was appointed Minister of Customs, and Minister of Consumer Affairs.

In November 1984, Cabinet approved the establishment of a Ministry of Women's Affairs. Its purpose, in consultation with relevant Ministers and other agencies, is to:

(i) advise the Minister of Women's Affairs on the implications of the Government's policies and public sector plans and expenditure programmes in terms of their differential impact on women;
(ii) monitor and initiate legislation and regulations in order to promote equality of opportunity for women;
(iii) advise the Minister of Women's Affairs of suitable nominees for the appointment of women to statutory bodies and other quasi-governmental bodies;
(iv) advise the Minister of Women's Affairs on any matter relevant to the implementation of the Government's Manifesto where this has implications for, or explicitly refers to, women.

In March 1985, the State Services Act 1962 was amended to add the Ministry of Women's Affairs and the position of Secretary of Women's Affairs to the list of departments of state and their permanent heads.

A series of open forums was held around the country in the last months of 1984, to give women the opportunity to select priorities for action from the Government's programme of equality for women, and to say how they thought the Ministry should operate. However, implementation of the government's policy for women is not the responsibility of the Ministry alone. One of the Ministry's roles is to encourage action by other government departments.

National Advisory Council on the Employment of Women (NACEW)—The National Advisory Council on the Employment of Women was set up in 1967. It is composed of a Chairperson and twelve other members. The Chair and six Council members are appointed by the Minister of Employment for their knowledge and experience in women's employment matters. The remaining six members represent the major employee and employer organisations in the private and public sectors, and the Departments of Labour and Education. NACEW thus has a tripartite nature.

The Council's primary function is to advise the Minister of Employment on all matters relating to the employment of women: for example, equal opportunity for girls and women in employment and training, parental leave, child-care and the social security system as it affects women. The most significant instances of this to date are the planning which preceded the Commission of Inquiry into Equal Pay and the drafting of the maternity leave legislation.

The Council's second function is to promote a greater public knowledge and understanding of women's employment and its implications. Accordingly, the Council has made submissions to bodies such as the Commission of Inquiry into Equal Pay, the Royal Commission on Social Security, the Select Committee on Women's Rights and the Select Committee on the Human Rights Commission Bill.

Thirdly, in co-operation with the Department of Labour, which provides secretarial assistance to NACEW, the Council has published statistical and pamphlet material on women's employment issues; promoted research into the employment of women and related topics such as industrial child-care; and promoted pilot schemes to explore ways of assisting disadvantaged groups of women in the paid workforce.

Women's Advisory Committee of the Vocational Training Council (WAC/VTC)—The Women's Advisory Committee of the Vocational Training Council was established in 1975 to advise the council on matters relating to women's training and to act as a catalyst to change the traditional attitudes

affecting the vocational training of women and girls. The council, which formerly reported to the Minister of Education, now reports to the Minister of Labour.

Membership of the committee comprises representatives from the Federation of Labour, the Employers Federation, State Services Co-ordinating Committee, the Combined State Unions, the Departments of Education and Labour, the Technical Institute/Community College system, the Polynesian Advisory Committee of the VTC, the National Advisory Council on the Employment of Women, and the Advisory Committee on Women's Affairs. There is also provision for an additional person with experience and knowledge of the special needs of women in relation to training and employment.

The committee is chaired by a Ministerial appointee to the VTC.

Since its establishment, the committee has been directing its efforts towards achieving equality of opportunity for women in the areas of training, and the promotion of non-traditional occupations for women is one of its current major programmes.

National Advisory Committee on Women and Education (NACWE)—The National Advisory Committee on Women and Education replaced an ad hoc committee originally set up to organise the 1975 conference "Education and the Equality of the Sexes" which was jointly sponsored by the Committee on Women and the Department of Education. This ad hoc committee continued in order to monitor the implementation of recommendations from the conference, and its work expanded to the extent that the Minister of Education set up a formal advisory committee in 1979.

The NACWE had 16 members, representative of relevant interest groups, who advised the Minister of Education on matters pertaining to the education of girls and women; the achievement of equality of opportunity and treatment for women in the education service; and ways in which the education system could contribute to equality of the sexes in New Zealand society.

The NACWE was disestablished by the Government in June 1982, and its work programme passed to various sections of the Department of Education. The Chair of NACWE was subsequently appointed to ACWA. In 1985 Government is considering proposals to form a reconstituted NACWE.

The Equal Employment Opportunities Unit (EEOU) of the State Services Commission—The Equal Employment Opportunities Unit (EEOU) of the State Services Commission has the overall functional responsibility for the promotion, co-ordination and monitoring of equal employment opportunity policies, programmes and practices within the Public Service.

The State Services Commission established the EEOU in 1983 to implement its policies in the areas of recruitment, conditions of employment, career development, selection and promotion to ensure that people are given equal access and consideration to pursue their careers without having their chances reduced by factors such as race, sex, country of origin, physical disability, marital status, or personal beliefs.

An EEO network was set up to facilitate the co-ordination between the EEOU and departments at central and regional level. In each of the 37 government departments, the senior manager responsible for the promotion, development and co-ordination of EEO policies reports back to the EEOU on the progress achieved in accordance with the positive approach set out in the EEO policy statement agreed by members of the State Services Co-ordinating Committee in February 1984.

In March 1984 a Regional Liaison Officer, EEO—Auckland, was appointed to ensure that frontline experience of EEO problems in the largest urban area was taken into account.

In June 1984 the EEOU set up a 12 member Inter-departmental Standing Advisory Committee on Equal Employment Opportunities (ISAC-EEO) to assist the EEOU in formulating new policy and determining long term EEO objectives. The Committee advises the Commission on the monitoring of the suitability and effectiveness of existing EEO practices in the Public Service.

The EEOU publishes a quarterly newsletter to keep public servants informed of EEO developments and provide a forum for ideas to which employees can contribute.

The ongoing programme of the EEOU is full and varied. Along with assisting the departments in the preparation of their EEO management plans by providing advice and resource material, the unit initiates and reviews policies and updates EEO modules for use in departmental training programmes. The EEOU also organises seminars and workshops on EEO principles and practices for departmental managers and EEO Liaison Officers; it promulgates positive action programmes which are planned, result-oriented programmes designed to achieve equal employment opportunities for women, ethnic minorities and disabled persons.

For unlawful discrimination on grounds of sex, see Human Rights Commission. Section 10A: Justice.

Legislation—The following legislation, either removing legal discriminations against women or directly aimed at assisting women, has been passed since 1970.

Domestic Proceedings Amendment Act 1971—Extended provisions for maintenance orders.

Equal Pay Act 1972—Established the principle of equal pay for equal work without discrimination on the basis of sex.

Social Security Amendment Act 1973—Established the domestic purposes benefit for solo parents.

Accident Compensation Amendment Act 1973—Extended compensation provisions to non-earners.

Matrimonial Property Act 1976—Provided for a more equitable division of property on the dissolution of a marriage.

Domicile Act 1976—Provided that a woman's domicile does not have to follow that of her husband.

Social Security Amendment Act 1977—Introduced national superannuation without discrimination.

Human Rights Commission Act 1977—Prohibited discrimination in such areas as employment, and access to goods and services on the grounds of sex or marital status.

Citizenship Act 1977—Accorded all New Zealand citizens the same rights with respect to the citizenship of spouses and children.

Social Security Amendment Act 1979—Provided for the payment of sickness and unemployment benefits to women and men on an equal basis.

Evidence Amendment Act 1980—Provided some restrictions on the cross-examination or presentation of evidence pertaining to a victim's sexual history.

Family Courts Act 1980—Removed family law to special court with special support services.

Family Proceedings Act 1980—Introduced no fault dissolution of marriage, and revised the law relating to matrimonial and domestic proceedings.

Guardianship Amendment Act 1980—Introduced custodial provisions which ensure that the welfare of the child is paramount and no one person can be preferred as custodial parent on the basis of sex.

Maternity Leave and Employment Protection Act 1980—Guaranteed up to 26 weeks unpaid leave to most women workers expecting a baby or planning to adopt a young child.

Factories and Commercial Premises Amendment Act 1981—Lifted restrictions on women working during night hours.

Domestic Protection Act 1982—Extended protection to the victims of domestic violence in whatever situation this occurs.

Coal Mines Amendment Act 1983—Provided for the repeal of the restriction on employment of women underground. New Zealand is no longer bound by the International Labour Convention 45.

Estate and Gift Duties Amendment Act 1983—Provided for a gift duty exemption where a matrimonial property agreement results in the non-owner spouse receiving half the matrimonial property.

Annex B

Section 38

NEW ZEALAND WOMEN: THEIR CHANGING SITUATION, 1970-1984

Pages 975 - 981 are available in English at the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs and can be consulted in the offices of the Branch for the Advancement of Women.

Living Arrangements—Four in every 5, or about 896 000 women in New Zealand were living as members of families in 1981. Families are defined in the context of the Census of Population and Dwellings as a wife and husband with or without never married children of any age, or a lone parent with one or more never married children. Family life is still standard for the majority of women. This should not mask the important fact that the living arrangements of women have undergone changes during the course of the 1970s, affected by a variety of social developments influencing patterns of family formation and dissolution. These include increases in divorce and separation rates and a drop in the marriage rate.

Solo mother families—Perhaps the most widely remarked of the changes in the living circumstances of women during the 1970s has been that of the rise in solo mother families. From a total of 59 000 in 1976, the number of families in the charge of lone mothers increased to more than 74 000 in 1981. Over the same period, families conforming to the stereotypical New Zealand family of a wife, husband and children declined in numbers, from 449 000 to 441 000. These changes meant that proportionately more women in 1981 were solo mothers than was the case 5 years earlier. On census night in 1981 one in every 10 New Zealand families was maintained by a solo mother. The comparable ratio in 1976 was 1 in 12. How many solo mother families there were in the country before 1976 is not known. What is known is that the numbers recorded at the 1976 and 1981 Censuses of Population and Dwellings understate the size of the group experiencing life as solo mothers. Census data relate only to living circumstances at a particular point in time. In reality women move into and out of solo parent situations, so that many more will have passed through single parent status than might be suggested by the evidence available.

The growing [illegible]ibility of solo mothers in New Zealand in recent years has been largely the result of the rising incide[illegible] of divorce and separation in the community. As recently as 1976 marriage ending through the de[illegible] of a spouse was the major factor in single parenthood. By the beginning of the 1980s separation and divorce had become much more important factors. Indeed, from 1976 to 1981

separation and divorce increased the number of solo mother families by close to 15 500. This meant that by 1981, 1 in every 2 separated and divorced women in the country was a single parent. Separated and divorced women increased, from 39 percent of all solo mothers in 1976 to 52 percent in 1981. Over the same period the proportion of solo mothers who were widows decreased. Fewer than 3 in every 10 solo mothers were widows in 1981, as against 4 in every 10 in 1976.

A further factor promoting the recent increase in solo mother families has been unmarried motherhood. From a total of 4460 in 1976 the numbers of never married solo mothers more than doubled to 9470 in 1981 as they became more inclined to keep children, who in earlier times would have been placed for adoption. Whereas in 1976 one in every 6 babies born to unmarried mothers was placed for adoption, by 1981 the ratio had dropped to 1 in 18. As a result of this growing trend towards more single women rearing children, never married mothers have become a more prominent group amongst solo mothers. Thirteen in every 100 solo mothers in 1981 had never been married, as against 8 in every 100 in 1976.

As separation, divorce and ex-nuptial birth have replaced spouses death as the major factor in the formation of solo mother families, solo mothers today are more likely to be young and have dependent children in their care. In 1981 about 55 000 women were responsible for 98 000 dependent children. Over a third of these mothers were supporting at least one pre-school child, and more than 80 percent were caring for children under 13 years of age. Yet, compared with other parents, solo mothers have fewer financial resources available to them and their children for housing, day care, health care, education, recreation and other basic requisites of living. Indeed, income data from the 1981 Census of Population and Dwellings indicate that solo mothers commanded some of the lowest incomes in the community. At the time of the census they comprised half of all families receiving incomes of less than $8,000 and only 3 percent of those with incomes of $8,000 and over. Some figures on the income position of solo mother and two-parent families appear below. The figures show that at all stages of the family life cycle solo mothers in 1981 had a lower mean per capita annual income than their two-parent counterparts. The mean income per capita per annum was calculated from the family income, defined as the sum of after-tax income of the parent(s), which, in turn, was defined as income received from Social Welfare Benefit and all other sources, adjusted where appropriate, for tax and family rebates. The lowest income level was recorded for solo mothers with pre-school children. Their mean annual income per capita of $1,560 was little more than half of that received by two-parent families with similar aged children.

MEAN ANNUAL INCOME PER CAPITA OF SOLO MOTHER AND TWO PARENT FAMILIES BY AGE OF YOUNGEST CHILD*

Age of Youngest Child (years)	*Mean Income Solo Mother Families*	*Per Capita Per Annum Two Parent Families*
	$	$
0– 4	1,560 (1,639)	3,000 (13,117)
5–12	2,080 (2,221)	3,490 (13,467)
13–15	2,840 (634)	4,400 (3,724)
16–18	3,200 (200)	4,940 (1,268)
Total	**2,050 (4,694)**	**3,450 (31,576)**

*Number of families appear in parentheses.

The lower incomes of solo mother families can be explained to a large extent by the relatively small proportion of women in these families employed in the paid workforce. The figures below show that compared with mothers in two parent families, mothers in one parent families were less likely to be working for pay or profit in 1981. This was true regardless of the ages of their children, and applied to both full time and part time work. The reason for the lower participation levels of solo mothers in the paid workforce is almost certainly related to New Zealand's social welfare provisions. While most single parents of dependent children are eligible to receive income from either the Domestic Purposes Benefit or the Widow's Benefit, income from these benefits is severely eroded by earnings from other than minimal part time work. It is not surprising therefore that benefit payments represented a substantial component of the income of women who were single parents.

In addition to, and almost certainly related to their lower income levels solo mother families in 1981 fared less well than their two parent counterparts in other areas of life. They had access to fewer amenities, such as telephones and household appliances, and were less likely to have a car. Whereas 9 in every 10 two parent families had a car in the household on census night 1981, only 4 in every 10 solo mother families did. It is noteworthy, too, that the proportion of solo mother families in rented accommodation was more than twice that of two parent families.

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES* OF MOTHERS IN ONE AND TWO PARENT FAMILIES, 1981†

	Age of Youngest Child				
Labour Force Status	*Under 5*	*5–12*	*13–15*	*16–18*	*Total*
	One Parent Families				
Part-time‡	5.3	9.4	9.1	8.7	7.9
Full-time§	9.5	30.5	48.7	45.4	25.9
Total	**14.8**	**39.9**	**57.8**	**54.1**	**33.7**
	Two Parent Families				
Part-time‡	13.2	16.3	12.3	12.3	14.3
Full-time§	14.9	45.0	54.7	52.7	33.5
Total	**28.1**	**61.3**	**67.0**	**65.0**	**47.9**

*Per 100 mothers †Families with dependent children ‡Working less than 20 hours a week §Working more than 20 hours a week

Thus, while the numbers of New Zealand women living as members of solo parent families are still fairly small relative to the total population of women, their recently accelerated increase in both numerical and percentage terms is of social importance. As noted earlier, the vast majority of solo mothers are no longer widowed women, but separated, divorced and never married mothers responsible for young families. It is precisely these solo mothers in charge of young children, as compared with solo mothers with older children, who command the lowest average family incomes, have the highest frequency of low income and must spend more of their total family income on the basic necessities of everyday living.

Husband and wife households—A second change in the shape of family life of New Zealand women has been the rise in the numbers of women living in two person households with their husbands and no other persons present. Between 1976 and 1981 the number of women in husband and wife only units increased by about 8 percent, from 224 660 to 243 980. Within the same five year period, the total population of women aged 15 years and over rose by just 6 percent, while the group of married women in a position to live in a husband-and-wife-only situation shrank in size. In other words, the growth in numbers of women living in husband-and-wife-only households has been far in excess of the growth in the numbers of adult women.

This increase in the proportion of women living alone with their husbands reflects in part the general aging of New Zealand's population. During the 1970s large numbers of women entered the age range when childrearing is complete or no longer an option. From a total of 198 000 in 1971, the group of women aged 60 years and over increased by about 27 percent to reach 251 200 in 1981. New Zealand men are also living longer extending the length of time elderly couples can expect to live together before one partner dies. Added to these changes elderly couples are less likely to be sharing their homes with other people. Between 1971 and 1981 the proportion of elderly couples who had children living with them appeared to decline steadily. So too did the numbers sharing their homes with persons other than their children. Two factors would appear to be important here. First, variations in the ages at which different groups of the elderly completed their childbearing several decades previously; women now approaching old age will have completed childrearing earlier in their life cycles than those who were elderly in previous decades. And second, improvements in the economic fortunes of both young and old, allowing different generations of a family to maintain separate households. Clearly, the living circumstances of elderly women are changing. Increasingly, it would seem they must equip themselves to cope with an extended period of post-childrearing life, much of which they will spend alone with their husbands.

Not all of the recent increase in the numbers of women living in a wife-and-husband-only situation has been due to the growing incidence of elderly women living alone with their husbands. In fact some of the highest rates of increase in couples living alone have occurred amongst those couples in which the woman has been between 25 and 44 years of age. The numbers of women at these ages living in a married couple household with no other persons rose by approximately 70 percent between 1971 and 1981. This is partly an age structure effect reflecting the movement into adulthood during the 1970s of large numbers of women born during the post-war baby boom. It is also indicative, however, of the increasing numbers of young couples who have decided to postpone having children until later in their marriages or have decided to remain childless. As discussed previously, the period of time that a young couple spend together between marriage and the birth of their first child lengthened considerably during the 1970s. In 1971, 66 percent of all first births to married women occurred during the first 2 years of marriage, but by 1981 the comparable figure had dropped to 46 percent. This meant a substantial increase in the numbers of young couples living together without children.

Non-family households—While the vast majority of women were living as family members in 1981, the incidence of non-family living has become relatively more common amongst New Zealand women in recent years. Indeed, during the latter half of the 1970s the numbers of women living in non-family households increased at a rate more than 4 times greater than that for women in family households. By 1981, 178 200 New Zealand women, equivalent to 1 in 7 women aged 15 years and over, were living in non-family households.

A substantial proportion of the increase in women living outside families has been due to the growing popularity of living alone. Women maintaining independent households expanded both in numbers and as a proportion of the total population of adult women during the 1970s. Some figures on this are presented below.

Pages 984 - 985 are available in English at the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs and can be consulted in the offices of the Branch for the Advancement of Women.

EDUCATION—The fact of being female or male has tended to have a special influence on educational decisions. Such decisions are important because the knowledge and skills acquired by women and men in educational institutions can have a major influence on the kinds of occupations, the potential level of earnings and the future life style they can attain. For this reason an examination of the progress made by women in education is of fundamental importance.

Enrolments and qualifications—The 1970s saw a rapid expansion in the numbers of New Zealand women continuing their formal education beyond compulsory attendance levels. Whereas at the opening of the decade around half of all young women were leaving secondary school after only 1, 2 or 3 years attendance, by the end of the decade growing proportions were staying on at school for longer periods. Of young women leaving secondary school in 1982, forty percent had completed 4 years attendance, and a further 23 percent 5 or 6 years attendance. Eight years earlier the proportions of women attending to these levels were somewhat lower at 36 percent and 17 percent respectively.

As the total number of women pursuing their secondary education to higher levels has increased, so too has the proportion of women amongst secondary school students. In fact, today, proportionately more women than men stay in school until the higher grade levels. In 1983, thirty seven in every 1000 women aged 15 to 19 were enrolled in the fifth, sixth and seventh forms at secondary schools, as against 35 in every 1000 men of the same age. On all counts New Zealand women now attain higher levels of secondary education than men and tend to outnumber men both in secondary school attendance and completion.

Not only have increasing numbers of women been pursuing their education for longer periods and to higher levels in the secondary school system, but more and more women have been choosing in recent years to advance their education beyond secondary school level in post-secondary institutions of learning, both university and non-university. The great majority of women undertaking such further education are enrolled in institutions of continuing education. Continuing education is for the most part vocational training giving students a background in a wide variety of craft, para-professional and technical skills in such specific fields as electricity, medical and dental technology, secretarial studies and nursing. As well as encompassing a diverse range of fields continuing education may be taken in a wide variety of educational settings ranging from technical institute and community college programmes to evening classes at secondary schools, or at the Technical Correspondence Institute or the Correspondence School.

Following the trend in secondary schools, the pattern of enrolments of women in continuing education programmes has been one of steady growth. In the 5 years between 1976 and 1981 the total number of women enrolled in full-year full-time, and full-year part-time courses in continuing education institutions climbed from 58 690 to 76 579. Over the same period the growth in male enrolments was less, the total numbers rising from 65 183 to 68 579. As a result of their more rapid increase in enrolments women made up 53 percent of all students in continuing education in 1983 compared with 47 percent in 1976.

Despite the fact that more women have been choosing to extend their knowledge and skills in institutions of continuing education their attendance rates still fall short of those of men. For instance, 76 in every 1000 women aged 15 to 39 were attending a continuing education institution in 1983. The comparable figure for men was higher at 84 per 1000. This should not mask the important fact however, that women have made large advances in improving their attendance rates during recent years. The figures in the table below illustrate this. They show that amongst the teenage population, the only group for which comparable time series data are available, improvements in attendance rates of women have been superior to those of men. Indeed, at ages 15 and 16 years the proportions of women attending institutions of continuing education now exceed those of men.

PROPORTIONS* OF WOMEN AND MEN ATTENDING INSTITUTIONS OF CONTINUING EDUCATION†, 1976 AND 1983

Year	Age Group (Years) 15	16	17	18	19	20–24	25–29	30–34	35–39	Total 15–39
					Women					
1976	7	40	89	83	70	..	..	..	..	..
1983	43	54	133	142	128	99	57	61	53	76
Percentage Change										
1976–83	514	35	49	71	83	..	..	..	..	..
					Men					
1976	9	56	142	192	178	..	..	..	..	..
1983	22	42	147	187	207	123	64	51	35	84
Percentage Change										
1976	144	−25	4	−3	16	..	..	..	..	..

*Rate per 1000 mean population in age-sex group

†Includes enrolments in full-year full-time, and full-year part-time courses.

Teacher training colleges form the other main institutions of post-secondary non-university education in New Zealand. Women have long outnumbered men in these institutions, reflecting the traditional popularity of teaching as a career choice amongst women. Despite the fact that the numbers and proportions of women entering teacher training courses have fallen substantially in recent years, as a result of cutbacks in teacher training, the proportion of women teacher trainees has grown. In 1983 women comprised 80 percent of all teacher trainees, 8 percentage points more than in 1976. Over the same period the proportion of women secondary teacher trainees rose from 58 to 66 percent, and primary teacher trainees from 76 to 84 percent. The reason for this marked increase in the proportion of female teacher trainees has been the more rapid decline during recent years, in the proportion of

men, as against women, choosing teaching as a career. This is illustrated by the figures appearing below. Whereas in 1976 women aged 16 to 39 were 2 to 3 times more likely than men of the same age to be training as primary or secondary school teachers, by 1983 they were 4 times more likely than men to be undertaking such training.

PROPORTIONS* OF WOMEN AND MEN UNDERTAKING PRIMARY AND SECONDARY TEACHER TRAINING 1976 AND 1983

Year	Age Group (Years) 17	18	19	20	21–24	25–29	30–34	35–39	Total 16–19
					Women				
1976	18	42	46	30	8	1	1	1	9
1983	4	13	19	20	6	1	1	1	4
Percentage Change									
1976–83	−78	−69	−59	−33	−25	-	-	-	55
					Men				
1976	2	6	9	10	8	2	1	-	4
1983	..	1	3	3	2	−1	-	-	1
Percentage Change									
1976–83	..	−83	−67	−70	−75	−50	-	-	75

*Rate per 1000 mean population in age sex group

In universities, the traditional training ground for professional occupations, the trend of enrolments has been clearly towards greater equality, even if women are still a minority of students. Between 1971 and 1983 the number of women enrolled as full-time university students in New Zealand almost doubled, from 6783 to 13 417. Over the same 12 year period the number of male full-time students increased by only 8 percent, from 18 212 to 19 727. By 1983 women comprised 40 percent of all full-time university students, well up on their 27 percent representation in 1971.

Two factors stand out as important in this increased representation of women in universities. First, the growing likelihood during the 1970s that young women would attend university. And second, the decreasing likelihood of university attendance amongst young men. Some figures on this are presented below. They show that the proportion of women aged 18 to 24 years enrolled in full-time university courses increased from 35 per 1000 women in 1971 to 55 per 1000 in 1983. Changes for all ages have been in the same direction, towards higher levels of female involvement in university education. For men, the trend has been in the opposite direction, with the proportion of men undertaking university studies generally falling at most ages. As a consequence, women between the ages of 18 and 24 are now almost two-thirds as likely as men of the same age to be attending university. At the opening of the 1970s the comparable ratio stood at only a third.

PROPORTIONS* OF WOMEN AND MEN AGED 18–24 YEARS ATTENDING UNIVERSITY FULL TIME, 1971–83

Year	Age (Years) 18	19	20	21	22	23	24	Total 18–24
				Women				
1971	74	65	48	27	14	8	5	35
1976	72	76	66	40	25	13	8	44
1981	76	84	74	48	28	16	11	-
1983	86	91	81	56	33	18	12	55
				Men				
1971	120	136	120	107	75	51	37	94
1976	100	117	117	92	72	48	30	84
1981	98	118	111	94	67	43	28	83
1983	94	112	111	95	68	41	28	80

*Rate per 1000 mean population in age sex group

While statistics of educational attendance provide an indication of the extent of educational progress made by women they are inadequate as indicators of educational attainment. Clearly not all students succeed in gaining the various qualifications associated with different levels of attendance. For instance, only a portion of students attending the sixth form at secondary school are successful in gaining University Entrance. Similarly, some students who attend university leave without having gained any qualifications. With increasing numbers progressing to more advanced levels of education, educational attainment is becoming more and more the key to upward occupational mobility. This being the case, it is important to examine the extent to which improved educational attendance amongst women has been translated into academic success. In other words, is it providing them with the credentials necessary to compete on an equal footing with men in the labour market, and in New Zealand society in general.

There are no comprehensive reliable data available showing the educational attainments of New Zealand women over a long period of time. However, some insights can be gained from examining the educational qualifications of women at various ages as shown in the results of the 1981 Census of Population and Dwellings. A summary of these statistics is given below.

PROPORTIONS* OF WOMEN AND MEN WITH EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS, 1981

Level of Qualification	*Age Group (Years)*					
	15–19	*20–24*	*25–44*	*45–59*	*60+*	*Total*
			Women			
School	557	629	438	224	123	368
Non-university	48	187	186	135	71	135
University	1	46	45	22	13	28
			Men			
School	491	586	429	241	166	374
Non-university	19	198	237	187	96	168
University	1	60	94	50	39	60

*Rate per 1000 population in age sex group

By comparing the younger age groups with the older groups it is possible to get some idea of the extent of improvement in educational performance over the years. It should perhaps be borne in mind however, that an increasing participation of older people in the education system will bias the use of age data as a proxy for time series data.

The figures appearing in the table above reveal a consistent trend in the proportions of women with educational qualifications. A rise at increasingly younger ages is evident in the proportions of women with school qualifications, from 123 per 1000 women in the 60 and over age group to 629 per 1000 in the 20 to 24 year group. A similar pattern can be observed in the proportions with university and non university qualifications. Furthermore, women have made greater progress relative to men, so that the gap in attainment rates between the two sexes is narrowing. To illustrate, of persons aged 25 to 44 years in 1981, 45 in every 1000 women had university qualifications, less than half the comparable proportion for men. In the 20 to 24 age group the proportion of women holding university qualifications had increased to just over three quarters of that of men.

Subject choice— Clearly, women have made steady improvements in increasing their attainments at all levels of education, even if the proportions with post-secondary school qualifications still remain below those of men. These improvements however, do not necessarily provide women with the requisite knowledge and skills to enable them to compete on an equal basis with men in the labour force. Indeed, significant differences remain, and a continuing division between the sexes is still clear in terms of subjects studied, particularly in vocational education and training.

It is on entry to secondary school that many important decisions are made that affect the future education and career patterns of women. By the upper secondary level, many women have already made definite commitments and have begun to follow specialised courses of study. There is a pronounced tendency, for example, for young women to follow courses in the arts and language fields. Far fewer young women than men study mathematics and the physical sciences, even though there has been some growth in the number of female students in these areas. Some examples show this clearly. Although young women make up roughly half of the New Zealand senior secondary school population, they comprise only 46 percent of enrolments in science and 43 percent of those in mathematics. Their enrolment in the physical sciences falls to 35 percent, and in technical options to only 7 percent.

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN ENROLMENTS IN FIRST DEGREE OR DIPLOMA COURSES AT UNIVERSITY 1976 AND 1983

First Degree or Diploma Course	*Year*	
	1976	*1983*
Arts	62	67
Education	75	82
Music	59	63
Fine arts	52	61
Science	30	35
Commerce	18	32
Law	28	42
Architecture	24	20
Medicine*	27	37
Engineering†	5	8
Agriculture and forestry‡	17	26
Veterinary science	24	40
Total	**41**	**46**

*Includes dentistry, nursing studies, optometry, pharmacy and human biology. †Includes field and landscape technology, mineral technology, surveying and technology. ‡Includes horticulture.

This clear division between the sexes in the subjects they take at secondary school repeats itself in the courses taken by women and men at various institutions of higher education. In fact, by the time students progress to post-secondary education the patterns become more marked and in many courses there are few women. At universities, as the above table indicates, there is a high proportion of women enrolled in languages, letters and the arts fields but a low proportion in fields with a strong vocational emphasis, particularly in technical disciplines such as Engineering, Medicine, Agriculture and Architecture which remain in some cases the almost exclusive preserve of men.

Consequently, the general increase in female participation has meant that the concentration of women in traditional female subjects has often become stronger. Young women now comprise about 46 percent of total first degree or diploma students in New Zealand. If the particular courses of study are examined, in less than 7 years from 1976 to 1983, women studying Arts rose from 62 percent to 67 percent, and within Education and Fine Arts the corresponding rises were from 75 to 82 percent, and 52 to 61 percent respectively. In contrast, there is still a low proportion of enrolments by women in the professional and career courses predominantly chosen by men, although some growth of female enrolments in these courses has occurred. Between 1976 and 1983 the proportion of women studying Engineering increased from 5 to 8 percent, in Medicine from 27 to 37 percent, and Agriculture from 17 to 26 percent.

Similar differences in course choices are found in enrolments in non-university institutions of learning. Women once again tend to dominate in a few well established fields, considered preparatory for traditional women's jobs, such as nursing, hairdressing, primary school teaching, secretarial work and food handling. They are very rarely found in such technical and mechanical fields as electricity, engineering, joinery and plumbing. For instance, of the total 1655 women enrolled in full year part time trade certificate courses in 1983 roughly half were in the fields of hairdressing and clothing. A mere 1 percent of male enrolments were in these 2 fields. The majority of enrolments of men were in engineering, carpentry, electricity and plumbing; fields conspicuous for their absence of women.

These patterns in women's educational enrolments suggest that the traditional patterns of subject choice are eroding, if at all, only very slowly. The persistent concentration of women into certain fields of study tends to undermine their achievements in education. If present trends continue, the subjects pursued by a high and rising proportion of women are those that most risk devaluation, in both educational and labour market terms, while the technically-oriented subjects in which they are underrepresented are more likely to have a higher employment value.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT—Work occupies a central place in the lives of the great majority of New Zealand women. In addition to the increasingly important role played by women in the paid workforce, women play a vital role as unpaid workers in the home and community. It is particularly noteworthy, however, that only that portion of women's work which is performed for

monetary remuneration is officially recognised as work. In marked contrast to the abundance of data on economic activity outside the home, there are no current official statistics in New Zealand on the voluntary and unpaid work of women in the community and home. Yet such work, especially women's unpaid work in the home, undoubtedly has major implications for the participation of women in the labour force, and has almost certainly handicapped women in the achievement of equal opportunity in the labour market.

The upward trend in the employment of women in the paid labour force has been perhaps the most widely remarked of the changes in the lives of New Zealand women in recent years. Women now make up a sizeable chunk of the officially recognized working population. In 1981 over half a million women in New Zealand were involved in some sort of paid work outside the home. They comprised close to 40 percent of all persons working for financial reward. Over the last decade the increase in the number of women at work has far outstripped the increase in the number of working men. From 1971 to 1981 the number of women in the paid work force rose by 169 200. In the same period the number of men in work rose by only 103 000. By the early 1980s more than 1 in every 2 women of working age had a job.

The rapid increase in women's employment is strongly related to a complex set of economic, social and demographic changes. Important among these has been the large expansion in the service sector of the economy which has created a demand for female labour. This sector includes wholesale and retail trade, government health care, telecommunications, airlines, restaurants and so on. Of the total 143 000 full time jobs created in the service sector between 1971 and 1981, about 57 percent have been filled by women. As more and more women have responded to opportunities in the labour market, paid work outside the home is being seen increasingly as a viable and profitable alternative to work in the home.

Demographic trends have also helped to reinforce this new life style. The marriage age is no longer falling and the increasing delay of the first birth within marriage has made it possible for young wives to become established at work before starting a family. The median duration of marriage for first nuptial confinements was 2.3 years in 1981, having risen since 1971 when it was 1.8 years. At the other end of the reproductive period, the proportion of women giving birth beyond the age of 34 years has fallen steadily. The overall effect has been to concentrate childbearing for most women within a narrow span of years, with the result that the majority of women today complete their childbearing within 3 to 5 years. Even if they wait to re-enter the labour force until all their children are in school this means they are absent from work for no more than 8 to 10 years.

Full time paid employment—The marked rise in the number and proportion of married women in paid work stands out as possibly the most significant feature in the changing employment situation of women over the past decade. Between 1971 and 1981 the number of married women employed full time in the labour force increased by 44 percent, from 166 500 to 240 000. Increases occurred for all age groups of married women, with the exception of the very young (aged under 20 years) and the very old (aged 65 and over). Some of the largest and most rapid rates of increase, however, were recorded amongst married women at the prime childbearing and childrearing ages. In the 10 years from 1971 to 1981, the number of married women aged 25 to 39 years working full time in the paid workforce grew by 78 percent.

Changes in the numbers of married women at various ages account for a part of this growth. The larger part of the increase, however, has not been due to population shifts but reflects a real change in the choices of married women during this period. The table below presents figures on the participation rates of married women in the labour force. It shows that with the exception of those aged 60 years and over, married women of all ages have chosen increasingly to take up paid employment in the full time labour force. In 1971, 26 in every 100 married women were members of the full-time labour force, but by 1981 this had risen to 36 in every 100.

PARTICIPATION RATES OF MARRIED WOMEN IN THE FULL TIME LABOUR FORCE, 1971 AND 1981

	Rate per 100 Married Women	
Age Group (Years)	*1971*	*1981*
15–19	30	42
20–24	34	48
25–29	21	34
30–34	24	36
35–39	32	47
40–44	35	53
45–49	36	51
50–54	31	42
55–59	22	29
60–64	11	10
65 and over	2	2
Total	**26**	**36**

The presence of young children in the family continues to be an influence on the employment of women. Indeed, the age of the youngest child is possibly the most important factor influencing the entry of married women into the labour force. Some figures on this appear in the table below. These show that the older the youngest child is, the more likely the mother is to be in the full-time labour force. Mothers of pre-school age children have considerably lower labour force participation rates than mothers of school age children. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the labour force participation rates of married women with children increased between 1976 and 1981, regardless of the age of the youngest child. In other words, the influence of the presence of children on mothers working outside the home, while still important, appears to be lessening.

PARTICIPATION RATES* OF MARRIED WOMEN IN THE FULL TIME LABOUR FORCE BY AGE OF YOUNGEST CHILD AND AGE OF MOTHER, 1976 AND 1981

	Age of Youngest Child						
Year	*0-2*	*3-4*	*5-9*	*10-12*	*13-16*	*17-30*	*Total*
	Married Women Aged 25-34†						
1976	9	18	41	59	64	62	21
1981	11	22	43	62	73	57	26
	Married Women Aged 35-44						
1976	13	20	39	51	58	58	41
1981	18	22	41	54	63	64	47

*Rate per 100 married women. †Because of the small numbers of women aged 25-34 with a youngest child aged 17 years or over these figures should be treated with caution.

It is perhaps important to note that although the labour force participation rates of married women have increased rapidly over the years since 1971, and have certainly changed more than those of any other group, they still display some of the lowest participation rates of any group. As the figures below show, participation rates, vary considerably among women of different marital status. Single (never married) women have the highest rates although they are still less than those of men. Divorced women record the next highest full time rates, followed by separated and married women. The only group with levels of participation below those of married women are widows who display a very low rate of participation in the full-time labour force.

PARTICIPATION RATES OF MEN AND WOMEN IN THE FULL TIME LABOUR FORCE, 1981

		Women				
Age Group (Years)	*Men*	*Never Married*	*Divorced*	*Separated*	*Married*	*Widowed*
	Rate per 100 in Age-Sex Marital Status Group					
15-19	57	50	33	39	42	45
20-24	91	79	52	42	48	35
25-29	97	77	53	40	34	32
30-34	98	75	53	42	36	31
35-39	98	75	58	52	47	33
40-44	98	77	66	60	53	39
45-49	87	76	69	61	51	38
50-54	95	72	64	53	42	34
55-59	89	61	56	43	29	26
60-64	47	25	24	21	10	12
65+	11	4	5	4	2	1
Total	**56**	**58**	**51**	**45**	**36**	**8**

Part time paid employment—Not only have more women been taking advantage of employment opportunities in the full time workforce over the past decade, but the number of women holding jobs on a part time basis (i.e. of less than 20 hours a week) has been growing. In fact, the growth in part time employment amongst women has been almost treble that of the growth in full time employment. Part time jobs accounted for approximately 17 percent of all jobs held by women in 1981 compared with fewer than 13 percent in 1971.

Although part time work comprises a relatively small share of women's total employment, it is an important form of employment amongst certain groups of women, notably married women. Married women make up the single largest group in the part time workforce, accounting for about 2 in every 3 part time workers. Married women between the ages of 30 and 39 are the most likely group to be in part time employment. On census night in 1981 no fewer than 16 in every 100 married women at these ages reported having a part time job. At ages other than the 30s not more than 10 in every 100 married women were working part time. The relatively high participation of 30- to 39-year-old married women in the part time workforce tends to be related to their low involvement in the full time labour force; the lower their full time participation, the higher their part time participation. This suggests that married women in their 30s may be entering part time employment as a temporary measure during the years when family responsibilities are greatest.

The rapid growth in part time employment in recent years has undoubtedly been a powerful inducement to many married women to re-enter the workforce. Because part time employment is compatible with home and family responsibilities it has offered women a convenient way of supplementing the family income without detracting too much from the performance of those home tasks still expected of them. Women with family responsibilities frequently have a severely restricted choice of employment, of hours worked and of location of work, especially where childcare facilities of reasonable cost are lacking. These constraints indicate that the nature of much part time work may be involuntary, i.e., that it is not necessarily the type of work that women would choose in less restricted circumstances.

A more restricted definition of involuntary part-time employment is that it occurs if a worker is forced to take part time instead of full time work because of the difficulty of finding the latter. The Social Indicators Survey conducted by the Department of Statistics in 1981 provides some insight into the extent of this form of involuntary unemployment amongst part time workers in New Zealand. It found that about 30 percent of all women who worked less than 20 hours a week would have preferred to work more hours. In other words, for a substantial number of women, part time work is in reality a hidden form of unemployment. Moreover, the fact that women form such a high proportion of total part time workers means that it is a far greater problem amongst women than men.

Occupational distribution—Despite the fact that more women today are spending more of their lives in paid employment outside the home, the type of work undertaken by women has changed little over the past decade. The vast majority of women continue to work in a narrow range of occupations, in what might be called the women's sectors of employment. The 1971 census showed that over half of women in full time paid employment worked in the clerical and professional sectors. The 1981 census confirmed this concentration, with 52 percent of women reporting jobs in these 2 sectors.

Generally, these are jobs with fairly low status. The clerical jobs most commonly reported by women at the 1981 census were clerk, typist and bank officer. Even in the professional sector, women's professions were more likely to be the lower status ones, like nursing and teaching, rather than the higher status ones, such as dentistry and law.

Women's position in teaching shows clearly how women are related to the lower levels of the occupational hierarchy. In 1981 approximately 58 percent of New Zealand teachers were women. Yet 65 percent of these women teachers worked in pre-schools and primary schools. Women dominated the bottom of the heirarchy and hardly figured at the top. For instance, whereas women comprised 93 percent of pre-primary teachers and 71 percent of primary teachers, they made up only 46 percent of all secondary teachers. In universities and other institutions of higher education women were even less well represented, accounting for not more than 23 percent of teachers.

The notion of women's work is reinforced by occupational segregation. Occupational segregation refers to the fact that women and men are concentrated in different occupations and even if they have the same occupation they are often employed at different levels of responsibility. Historically, most of the labour market segments have been dominated either by women or men and this segregation has largely persisted despite the fact that the participation rates of women in the paid workforce have increased relative to those of men. This is best illustrated by some examples. At census night in 1981 the 5 most popular occupations for women were general clerk, shop assistant, teacher, nurse and sewing machinist; occupations containing very few men. Indeed, with the exception of teaching, women outnumbered men in these occupations by more than 7 to 3. Conversely, women were very poorly represented in the most common occupations for men; those of sheep farmer, lorry-driver, carpenter, freezing worker and warehouseworker. Fewer than 1 in 8 workers in these occupations in 1981 were women.

The picture this presents is that occupational segregation is still very much a feature of the labour market in New Zealand. The evidence available indicates that occupational segregation is as great among young women as among older women, in spite of the former's higher levels of general education. This is illustrated by the figures appearing below. They show that in 4 of the most common occupations for women in 1981—teaching, nursing, bank officer and general clerk—the percentage of female employees was greater amongst 20 to 24 year olds than for the labour force as a whole.

MOST COMMON OCCUPATIONS FOR WOMEN IN 1981

	Women as a Percentage of All Employees in Occupation	
Occupation	*20–24 Year Olds*	*Total Labour Force*
Clerk (General)	74	72
Shop Assistant	73	79
Teaching	77	58
Nursing	96	93
Secretary typist	100	98
Sewing machinist	97	98
Bookkeeper and accounts clerk	72	73
Bank Officer	66	59

On the other hand, there is some evidence of reductions in the degree of occupational segregation because small numbers of women have been entering non traditional occupations. Census figures show, for instance, that the proportion of women in many occupations requiring high qualifications has increased. A few examples illustrate this. Between 1971 and 1981 the percentage of women who were physicians rose from 7 to 14 percent, general practitioners from 6 to 12 percent, lawyers from 2 to 9 percent, dentists from 3 to 7 percent, and higher education and university teachers from 17 to 23 percent. However, in the field of engineering, the proportion of women has increased very little remaining below 2 percent.

In spite of the low status of much of women's work, entry into paid work has changed many women's lives. Expectations about their roles have changed. Many women now expect to be able to raise a family and continue in paid work. Whereas at one time women left the labour market the moment they got married, or when the first child arrived, an increasing number of young women are now choosing to stay in work, even when they have children. Working today has assumed a more central and continuous place in many women's lives. It has become part of their identity and self-image, and an important component of their relationships with their families, and with the world outside the home.

Unemployment—There have been suggestions that the entry of growing numbers of women into the paid workforce has helped fuel the recent growth in unemployment, particularly amongst men. Since 1971, male unemployment has risen faster than female unemployment as shown below.

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES FOR WOMEN AND MEN, 1971 TO 1981

	Percentage of Labour Force Unemployed	
Census Year	*Women*	*Men*
1971	2.2	1.1
1976	2.9	1.7
1981	5.7	3.9

In 1971 female unemployment was double that for males, by 1981 it was only 50 percent higher. The more rapid growth in unemployment among males, despite suggestions to the contrary, has been quite unrelated to women's movement into the labour force. There have been 2 causes. First, the goods producing sector (mining, manufacturing and construction), which employs more than a third of all male workers has been hit especially hard during the present recession. Second, the rate of growth of the female labour force has slowed down substantially since 1979, easing the pressure on female unemployment.

However, the narrowing difference in the unemployment rates of males and females may also reflect the fact that women have been withdrawing from the labour market or delaying re-entry given the lack of available work. That is to say, a sizeable portion of women's unemployment may remain hidden, not reflected in the figures. Amongst women at home, there is a group of discouraged workers. These are women who would be working or seeking work, if the labour market conditions were different, and they saw suitable jobs available; with the hours they wanted to work, or using their skills and attributes. It is difficult to establish the number of discouraged female job seekers with the result that this category of unemployment is not reported in the official series of unemployment statistics. (In future information on discouraged job seekers will be available from the Household Labour Force Survey, currently being established by the Department of Statistics.) The Social Indicators Survey carried out in 1981 provides perhaps the only current source of official data on discouraged workers in New Zealand. It showed that among women the group of discouraged workers outnumbered those seeking full time work. Two percent of women in the Survey reported they were seeking full time work, while 6 percent were in the hidden unemployed. For men, the proportions unemployed and in the hidden group were equal. A total of around 5 percent of men and 8 percent of women between the ages of 15 and 64 were either seeking full time work or were in this group of discouraged workers. What these figures suggest is that the growth in unemployment amongst women has almost certainly been greater than the census figures on unemployment might suggest.

It is the youngest age groups, especially women between the ages of 15 and 19 who have been hardest hit by unemployment. The 1981 census recorded an unemployment rate of 16 percent for women and 12 percent for men of this age group. The rates were especially high for young Maori and Pacific Island women who recorded the highest levels of unemployment of all groups in the community. Amongst 15 to 19 year olds at the 1981 census, the unemployment rates for Maori and Pacific Island women were 3.3 and 2.6 times greater, respectively, than those for all other women. The incidence of unemployment amongst women also varies by marital status and level of education. Unemployment rates recorded at the 1981 census were higher among divorced, separated and widowed women than among married and single women. This may be partly because married women are more likely to be discouraged job seekers, i.e., their unemployment is hidden. Single (never married) women had the lowest levels of unemployment.

In general, the less education women had, the more likely they were to be unemployed. It is of interest to note that in 1981 men were more likely to be employed than women with the same level of education.

There are a number of possible reasons for the higher unemployment rates of women apart from discrimination on grounds of sex. For instance, women are likely to be less senior in their occupations than men, to be less highly trained, or trained in different skills. They are more likely than men to hold part time and low status jobs, which are more vulnerable to lay-offs. Another factor, unrelated to the actual jobs women hold, is the way that family decisions may revolve more around a husband's career than a wife's. Wives may not be free to migrate to areas where their work prospects are best, while husbands, with families in trail, do. Or, a family move triggered by a husband's career opportunity may dislocate a wife from a good job so that she is unemployed for a while in the new area. It may be, in future, that as wives' careers become more important in the family, migration decisions will be based on job opportunities for both partners equally.

Pages 994 - 1000 (Section on Maori and Pacific Island Polynesian Women) are available in English at the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs and can be consulted in the offices of the Branch for the Advancement of Women.

SUMMARY—The 1970s have seen important changes in the lives of New Zealand women. One of the most profound changes has been the entry of growing numbers of women, especially married women, into the paid workforce. More women today than ever before are taking up employment outside the home, many combining domestic careers with careers in the labour force. Despite the increasing involvement of women in paid employment, however, few have been successful in penetrating into men's work domains. The vast majority of women continue to remain heavily concentrated in lower paying, less skilled occupations, mainly in the clerical and services sectors. This may reflect to some extent the educational choices of women. While increasing numbers have been choosing to advance their education to higher levels, most continue to enrol in arts and language subjects. These are the subjects that most risk devaluation, in both educational and labour market terms.

The private lives of New Zealand women have also undergone changes. Over the past decade growing numbers of women have been choosing to defer marriage, postpone childbearing and to limit their families to one or two children. In addition, the greater financial independence afforded to women through their increased activity in the labour force, has widened their choice of living situations. This is reflected in the small but growing group of young women who are opting to live alone, and the rising numbers of women leaving unsatisfactory marriages to raise young families on their own.

Despite these changes in women's lives, wide ranging inequalities continue to persist between women and men in New Zealand. A long social tradition has designated the family as the central focus of women's lives, while the provision of material and money support has been assigned to men. Even as women have entered the labour market, their family responsibilities have continued. It has consequently proved very difficult for them to assume full and equal roles in the work world. Women's growing presence outside the home raises some very basic issues about the structure of society—about the organisation of work and about roles in the family. The issues raised are not separate problems which can be left solely to women for solution; rather, they demand broad social adaptation and change.

FURTHER STATISTICAL INFORMATION—A wide range of government publications containing statistical information on women, are available from Government Bookshops in Auckland, Hamilton, Wellington, Christchurch and Dunedin. Publications which may be found useful include:

1981 Census of Population and Dwellings, Volumes 1 to 12—Department of Statistics
Justice Statistics—Department of Statistics (annual)
New Zealand Tables of Working Life—Department of Statistics
Population and Migration—Department of Statistics (annual)
Part A—Population
Part B—Migration
Prices, Wages and Labour: Part B Wages and Labour—Department of Statistics (annual)
Profile of Women—Department of Statistics, 1985
Report on the Social Indicators Survey, 1980–81, Department of Statistics
Vital Statistics—Department of Statistics (annual)
Educational Statistics of New Zealand—Department of Education (annual)
Cancer Data—Department of Health (annual)
Hospital and Selected Morbidity Data—Department of Health (annual)
Mental Health Data—Department of Health (annual)
Mortality and Demographic Data—Department of Health (annual)
Wages, Hours and Employment—Department of Labour (6 monthly)

Additional statistics and references exist in a number of computerised facilities. The Department of Statistics has a range of statistical series in the database of the Information Network for Official Statistics (INFOS). Access to this can be gained by consulting the department, by becoming an official user, or through an established user, such as a library. The National Research Advisory Council, with the help of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (DSIR), has set up the Social Science Information system (SOSRIS), listing published work from 1984. SOSRIS is a database on the DSIR's VAX computer system and can be accessed through DSIR divisions or other compatible computer systems.

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Annex C

WOMEN'S POLICY

1. Labour recognises that there is still active and implicit discrimination in all areas of New Zealand women's lives. Labour will play a leading role in achieving equality for women, economic equality, soecial and cultural equality; and legal and political equality.

Economic Equality

2. Women already make a considerable contribution to the economic growth and development of New Zealand. However, a women's opportunities for full and equal participation are too often limited; employment and child care policies are particularly important in recognising the needs of women.
3. Labour will promote quality childcare by supporting:
   (a) a range and diversity of early childhood care and education facilities, including playcentres, kindergartens, Te Kohanga Reo, community child care, family daycare, and industrial and educationally-based child care. Centres will be encouraged to provide flexible care patterns, including full day care and part day care, including care covering shift or night work and short term care and care of occasional or emergency use;
   (b) after school care and holiday care for older children, particularly in existing school facilities.
4. Quality childcare will be adequately and flexibly funded. The range of assistance will include s .y subsidies, equipment grants, establishment grants, staff training assistance, and direct support f .ow income families.
5. In order to promote quality childcare, Labour will ensure that those responsible for the care and education of children have the right of access to training; fair remuneration and conditions of employment; and that community early childhood advisors are required to ensure the highest standards of care and education are maintained.

Training and Employment

6. Labour believes that women who wish to have access to the paid workforce and training, retraining and career opportunities, should have that right. Labour will therefore:
   (a) promote more job sharing, flexible working hours, and part-time work opportunities, in both the public and private sectors;
   (b) vigorously enforce and promote public awareness of the Equal Pay Act 1972;
   (c) introduce affirmative action programmes within the public sector which will aim at active recruitment and promotion of women at all levels, and which will include:
      1) provision of permanent part-time work and job sharing;
      2) encouragement of women to attend management courses;
      3) public sector apprenticeship and retraining schemes for women;
      4) recognition of community and domestic experience, as well as other qualifications of job seekers;
      5) women on every public sector appointment board;
   (d) in consultation with the private sector, Labour will investigate affirmative action programmes which would ensure more equitable employment and promotion patterns for women in the private sector, and which would attract more women into the full range of apprenticeship, technician training, and other non-traditional careers;
   (e) Labour will provide legislative protection for outworkers;
   (f) Labour's training and retraining programmes will help women enter or re-enter all areas of the paid workforce. Women who have been in paid employment will receive the same employment, training and retraining rights and allowances as other displaced workers.
   (g) Labour will amend the Maternity Leave and Employment Protection Act;
      1) to provide paid family leave for either parent for caring for dependents during sickness and emergencies;
      2) to ensure that a woman hs a right to return to her job, and has speedy access to dispute procedures.

(h) Labour will:
1) investigate legislation to provide paid paternal leave for either parent at the time of childbirth or adoption;
2) support unpaid parental leave being available to either parent for a period of up to five years to care for each pre-schooler with the right of re-entry into the workforce with any necessary retraining.

(i) Labour will introduce legislation concerned with new technology developments:
1) Labour will monitor the introduction of computer terminals into homes as places of work, to protect wage rates and conditions. These controls, combined with the increased provision of child care centres, will ensure that the acceptance of home work by a person has been made from real choice, and that she will be free from exploitation by her employer;
2) Labour will provide for automatic eligibility for paid retraining of employees whose skills are displaced or downgraded by new technology.

Social and Cultural Equality
Home and Community

7. Women working in their homes, particularly those caring for children, the elderly or the disabled, have been particularly hard hit by the present Government's economic mismanagement. This is especially so for low income families. Labour will therefore:
(a) through tax and income support policies, ensure a fairer distribution of resources;
(b) through Social Welfare policy, boost support services for families in need, particularly for those caring for dependents such as the handicapped and the elderly;
(c) ensure that quality childcare is accessible at a reasonable price, for both occasional use and for times of family emergency;
(d) through Housing policy:
1) give priority to the housing needs of low income families, whether headed by one parent or two;
2) remove the Housing Corporation rule which inhibits a custodial parent from buying out the other partner's share of the family home;
3) encourage more sharing of houses, for example by beneficiaries;
4) Housing Allocation Committees will include women.

8. Labour recognises the present crucial role and contribution of women in many voluntary organisations, and will consider measures to reimburse expenses related to voluntary work, in particular for those voluntary organisations which assist in providing essential social services and employment.

9. Labour recognises the importance of communities, and local community initiative and will therefore ensure access for community groups to all suitable public buildings; the encouragement of "community centres" or "community houses" which can reflect the economic, cultural and recreational needs of women as well as other community demands, and the need for local and regional authorities to plan for community development which is more sensitive to the needs of women. Assistance will be given to local authorities to fund community development and recreation officers with special responsibility for women.

Education

10. In order to ensure educational equality of opportunity for women of all ages and the full development of human potential on a non-sexist basis, Labour will:
(a) take positive steps to free the education system from sexist language and attitudes;
(b) ensure information is widely available on changing roles, life options and job opportunities for both women and men;
(c) reinstate the women's advisory position and the National Advisory Committee on Women and Education within the Education Department with expanded functions and powers;
(d) enable the acceptance in school programmes that knowledge concerning human development and relationships is part of the growing, learning and sharing process;
(e) ensure that positions of responsibility are held by women commensurate with their representation in the relevant sector of the teaching professions and ensure that there will be at least one

woman amongst the three senior administrative positions in all co-educational secondary schools,

(f) increase opportunities for life-long education;

(g) ensure that more childcare facilities are available at educational institutions.

Health

11. Women have the right to be involved in the provision and quality of health care services, particularly those which affect them individually.

12. Labour believes that every woman has the right to control all aspects of her life, including her fertility.

(a) Labour will support the adequate funding of the Family Planning Association and the addition of family planning input in all ante-natal clinics.

(b) Labour will provide prescribed contraceptives at no charge to the consumer.

(c) Labour will provide freely available contraceptive advice.

(d) Labour will continue to provide publicly-funded facilities for counselling and abortions but on an equitable basis throughout the country.

(e) Labour will review the grounds for abortion and the certifying consultants system.

(f) Labour will make sterilisation available on an equitable basis throughout the country.

(g) Labour will initiate a review of legislative needs in the area of infertility programmes.

13. Labour will ensure that all statutory boards covering the health and welfare of women will, where possible, comprise a majority of women.

14. Labour will urgently assess the present provisions of maternity services in New Zealand, to ensure the interests of the women and her child are paramount. Labour supports the option of planned home births, and therefore the need for an expanded domiciliary midwife service. Current gynaecological and other health services for women will also be reassessed. Women will be encouraged to participate fully in both reviews.

15. Labour will encourage the establishment of mobile health units, particularly in providing services such as family planning, Plunket, and family health care.

16. Labour will encourage and strengthen community based health programmes, particularly in the areas of women's general and mental health. Particular attention will be given to encouraging participation and involvement by women from minority ethnic groups and the promotion of research into women's health issues.

17. Multi-lingual material on health consumers-rights will be publicly available.

18. Labour will take initiatives to promote the enforcement of the World Health Organisation's Code on infant milk formulae, including the introduction of legislation to enact the Code and the application of the Code in trading regulations.

Doubly Disadvantaged Women

19. Labour recognises that some groups of women face special difficulties, particularly minority ethnic groups, disabled women and rural women. Labour believes that the recognition of different cultures is legitimate and inherently worthwhile and adds a positive and rich aspect to New Zealand. Labour's Maori and Pacific Island policies are based on that conviction. Those policies also recognise and address specific problems including areas of particular concern to women. (See Maori Policy and Pacific Island Policy.)

To assist women in rural areas, Labour will:

20. (a) extend the Rural Education Activities Programmes;

(b) provide more mobile pre-school units;

(c) use school buses more flexibly for community development;

(d) provide financial support for parents who assist children with correspondence lessons;

(e) ensure that regional development and other employment policies take account of the special needs of women in rural areas;

(f) retain vital services such as maternity hospitals, local primary schools and school dental services, where there is a community need for their services.

To help disabled women, Labour will:

21. (a) ensure that groups working with the disabled receive support for public education programmes;

(b) recognise as a priority, support for disabled women in entering job training and the workforce.

Legal and Political Equality
Ministry of Women's Affairs

22. Labour will create a Ministry of Women's Affairs. The present Advisory Committee on Women's Affairs will be disbanded. The new Ministry will be headed by a woman and will be provided with sufficient resources to act as an initiator, co-ordinator and monitor of activities affecting women. Its functions will include:
    (a) the promotion and monitoring of affirmative action programmes, in both the public and private sectors;
    (b) liaison with women's organisations;
    (c) funding women's projects;
    (d) a programme of affirmative action, using the Women's Appointment File, to ensure the appointment of suitably qualified women to statutory boards, with an overall target of 50% representation;
    (e) promotion of research, education and publications on matters affecting women;
    (f) the scrutiny of legislation as it affects women, including new legislation, and monitoring for non-sexist language;
    (g) the monitoring of education and communication systems to ensure that positive images of women are portrayed.
23. The Human Rights Commission Act 1977 will be reviewed to include prohibition of discrimination in employment on the grounds of family responsibility and an examination of the effectiveness of the current administration of the Act.
24. Labour will ratify the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women, with "reservations" if necessary.
25. Labour will appoint more women as judges and JPs.
26. Labour will review current rape legislation, will provide financial support for women-staffed rape crisis centres, and will encourage educational programmes promoting attitudinal change in respect of sexual crimes, in particular programmes for men and boys on the horror of rape.
27. Labour will investigate the conditions at women's prisons, particularly the provision of educational and recreational facilities and appropriate clothing.
28. Labour will:
    (a) review the current domestic violence legislation;
    (b) support the establishment and independent administration of women's refuges (with one refuge per 10,000 population and geographical spread);
    (c) ensure refuges are adequately funded;
    (d) encourage educational programmes on the subject of domestic violence and the availability of refuges;
    (e) ensure that the police and other Government agencies who are involved in this area, receive appropriate training.
29. Provision will be made to encourage Courts when imposing sentences to consider where appropriate Community Service or Periodic Detention as alternatives to sentencing women to prison.

Communal Property

30. Labour will introduce legislation to recognise the concept of communal property and to establish procedures for claims. The Family Protection Act will also be extended to allow for the provision of claims for parties outside the immediate legal relationships.

Annex D

01442
17

C LEGISLATION

1.1.1

The general measure which guarantees the equality of women and men and prohibits discrimination on the grounds of sex is the Human Rights Commission Act 1977. The statute was enacted in November 1977 and came into force in September 1978. The Act binds the Crown.

1.1.2

The Human Rights Commission has the general functions of promoting, encouraging, and co-ordinating programmes and activities in the field of human rights, and the specific functions of investigating alleged breaches of the wide ranging provisions against discrimination on grounds of sex, marital status, or religious or ethical beliefs set out in Part II of the Act. (Part II also makes unlawful any discrimination on grounds of colour, race, or ethnic or national origin in a number of areas of activity not already covered by the Race Relations Act 1971.)

The membership of the Commission consists of the Chief Human Rights Commissioner (the chairman), the Proceedings Commissioner, the Chief Ombudsman, the Race Relations Conciliator, and up to three others appointed by the Governor General on the recommendation of the Minister of Justice. The membership of the Commission was changed in February 1984 when the terms of previous members expired. The Commission is now for the first time fully constituted, three of the members being women.

An Equal Opportunities Tribunal was constituted under the same Act. The principal function of the Equal Opportunities Tribunal is to adjudicate in civil proceedings brought by the Commission alleging discriminatory practice under Part II of the Act.

1.2.2

The Commission investigates an alleged breach of the Act and attempts to reach a mediated settlement. (As such, it is a conciliation based body.) If that is not possible the Proceedings Commissioner or the aggrieved person may bring civil proceedings before the Equal Opportunities Tribunal. The Tribunal consists of a chairman, who is a barrister or solicitor, and two other persons appointed by the chairman from a panel maintained by the Minister of Justice. The Tribunal has a range of remedies available to it, including a declaration, restraining order, damages, or an order that the defendant perform specific acts to redress the discrimination. The Tribunal is a quasi-judicial body which has the power to make legally binding orders. There is a right of appeal from the Tribunal to the High Court.

1.2.4

The remedies available before the Equal Opportunities Tribunal are wide ranging and have proved effective in redressing violations.

These remedies are:

HRC Act S.38(6)

(6) If in any such proceedings the Tribunal is satisfied on the balance of probabilities that the defendant has committed a breach of any of the provisions of Part II of this Act, it may grant one or more of the following remedies:

(a) A declaration that the defendant has committed a breach of this Act:

(b) An order restraining the defendant from continuing or repeating the breach, or from engaging in, or causing or permitting others to engage in, conduct of the same kind as that constituting the breach, or conduct of any similar kind specified in the order:

(c) Damages in accordance with section 40 of this Act:

(d) An order that the defendant perform any acts specified in the order with a view to redressing any loss or damage suffered by the aggrieved person as a result of the breach:

(e) A declaration that any contract entered into or performed in contravention of any of the provisions of Part II of this Act is an illegal contract:

(f) Relief in accordance with the Illegal Contracts Act 1970 in respect of any such contract to which the defendant and the aggrieved person are parties:

(g) Such other relief as the Tribunal thinks fit.

(7) In any proceedings under this section the Tribunal may award such costs against the defendant as it thinks fit, whether or not it makes any other order, or may award costs against the plaintiff, or may decline to award costs against either party. Where the Commission is the plaintiff any costs awarded against it shall be paid by it and it shall not be entitled to be indemnified by the aggrieved person (if any).

40 Damages -

(1) In any proceedings under section 38 of this Act the Tribunal may award damages against the defendant for a breach of any of the provisions of Part II of this Act in respect of any one or more of the following:

(a) Pecuniary loss suffered as a result of, and expenses reasonably incurred by the aggrieved person for the purpose of, the transaction or activity out of which the breach arose:

(b) Loss of any benefit, whether or not of a monetary kind, which the aggrieved person might reasonably have been expected to obtain but for the breach:

(c) Humiliation, loss of dignity, and injury to the feelings of the aggrieved person:

Provided that damages awarded under paragraph (c) of this subsection on behalf of any one aggrieved person shall not exceed $1,000.

It should be noted that when the Commission takes a complainant's case to the Tribunal, it is the Commission that meets all the costs involved, including Counsel's fee etc. Any award of damages is received by the complainant and not the Commission.

1.3

All laws and regulations, including penal provisions, which constitute discrimination against women have been abolished. This has been a gradual process but it would be fair to say that the pace increased following the attention given to women's rights in the mid-1970s.

1.4

Both the Justice Department and the Human Rights Commission have published leaflets explaining the operation of the Human Rights Commission Act 1977.

There are special provisions under the Act where programmes and activities for people of a particular sex or marital status who need assistance in reaching equal status in the community may be approved by the Human Rights Commission. Likewise activities to improve the situation of people of particular race, colour, national or ethnic origin are not in breach of the Human Rights Commission and Race Relations Acts.

Since 1978, the Commission has been active in the educational field running courses and seminars and preparing and distributing pamphlets, books and other publications, and also arranging some television programmes. Women's organisations, both governmental and non-governmental, have been assisting and encouraging the dissemination of information.

The Human Rights Commission is responsible for attempting to settle a case of alleged discrimination and, if that is not possible, bringing proceedings (through the Proceedings Commissioner) before the Equal Opportunities Tribunal. If the Commission (through the Proceedings Commissioner) declines to take proceedings the aggrieved person may do so. Legal aid is available in some circumstances to an individual bringing proceedings before the Tribunal.

Voluntary workers, many of whom are members of women's organisations, help women to understand their legal rights through agencies such as Citizens' Advice Bureau, Friends at Court, Rape Crisis Centres, and Women's Refuges.

1.5

Slave dealing is outlawed by s.98 of the Crimes Act 1961. It is punishable by 14 years imprisonment and includes debt-bondage and serfdom.

Prostitution is not per se illegal but it is an offence punishable by five years imprisonment to live off the earnings of the same or run/manage a brothel or procure sexual intercourse for reward.

1.6

Women and children are protected by the general law. In addition, the Crimes Act 1961 deals with sexual crimes against women and children, crimes involving the neglect of children, and infanticide.

The Domestic Protection Act 1982 is of general application but has particular relevance to women and children, who are often the victims of domestic assaults. The Act provides civil remedies to mitigate the effects of domestic violence and to confer protection from molestation in the domestic sphere.

The Children and Young Persons Act 1974 deals with children neglected or abused by their parents.

The Evidence Amendment Act 1977 provides that in rape trials evidence relating to a complainant's sexual experience or reputation is excluded except where exclusion would be contrary to the interests of justice.

The Rape Law Reform Bill, currently before Parliament, alters the procedure followed in rape trials to mitigate the effects of the trial on the complainant.

1.7

There are no major obstacles as such, except problems of attitude and stereotyped notions of the role of women in home and society. Attitudinal change is given high priority in the Human Rights Commission's education programme. Economic recession has also been a negative factor with regard to women's rights in employment, particularly in view of the need to convince companies to introduce equal opportunities programmes.

2 NATIONALITY

2.1

It is assumed that "nationality" here refers to the concept that is known as "citizenship" in New Zealand. This is dealt with in the Citizenship Act (1977) which completely revised the New Zealand citizenship legislation and removed differentiation on the grounds of sex.

2.2

Marriage to an alien does not affect the New Zealand citizenship of a woman (Citizenship Act 1977).

2.3

Acquisition of New Zealand citizenship can be effected by individual application; and the loss of New Zealand citizenship by voluntary renunciation. New Zealand allows multiple nationalities.

2.4

* (Citizenship Act 1977, sections 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13.) Every person born in New Zealand since 1 January 1949 is a New Zealand citizen by birth. Persons born outside New Zealand on or after 1 January 1978 shall be New Zealand citizens "by descent" if at the time of their birth their mother or father was a New Zealand citizen, otherwise than by descent.

Citizenship by descent is to lapse two years after a person acquires his or her majority unless the birth has been registered in accordance with regulations to be made under the Act. However any person who was born outside New Zealand before 1 January 1978 is entitled as of right on application to a grant of New Zealand citizenship if at the time of the person's birth his or her mother was a New Zealand citizen by virtue of being born here or by naturalisation. This provision was deliberately included to remedy past discrimination, whereby children of mothers with New Zealand citizenship and alien fathers could be subjected to immigration restrictions, which were not applied to children of New Zealand fathers and alien mothers.

* (Prior to this the British Nationality and N.Z. Citizenship Act 1948 and its subsequent Amendments applied.)

01442
25

3 CIVIL LAW

3.1

Women, married or unmarried, enjoy equal rights with men in a legal capacity and equal opportunities to exercise their legal capacities. The Human Rights Commission Act 1977 prohibits discrimination on the grounds of sex or marital status in the fields of (inter alia) the provision of goods and services, and land, housing and other accommodation. The Matrimonial Property Act 1976 provides that the legal capacity of a married woman shall be in all respects the same as that of a married man. (This has been the legal position for over a century.) At common law unmarried women enjoy the same legal capacities as men.

Women, married or unmarried, enjoy the right to be treated equally in all stages of procedures in courts and tribunals.

The legislation governing procedure - the Judicature Act 1908 and the District Courts Act 1947 - makes no distinction between men and women.

01442
26

Women, married or unmarried, enjoy the same rights as men to conclude contracts and to acquire, administer and dispose of property.

Relevant legislation includes the Human Rights Commission Act 1977, the Matrimonial Property Act 1976, and the Administration Act 1969 (which deals with the administration of deceased estates).

Women, married or unmarried, enjoy the same rights as men with regard to the law relating to the movement of persons and the freedom to choose their residence and domicile.

Relevant legislation includes the Human Rights Commission Act 1977, which prohibits discrimination in landholding and other accommodation; the Immigration Act 1964, which does not distinguish between men and women for the purposes of immigration; and the Domicile Act 1976, which provides that a married woman may have a domicile independent of her husband's.

3.2

The following is a list of Acts which have the effect of promoting sex equality in New Zealand:

Matrimonial Property Act 1976

This statute is described as an Act to recognise the equal contribution of husband and wife to the marriage partnership and to provide a just distribution of matrimonial property between spouses. It provides a rebuttable presumption of equal division of the matrimonial property when a marriage breaks down. Matrimonial property is, broadly, property acquired after the marriage through the work or service of either spouse but not by inheritance or gift. The presumption may be displaced if the marriage is short (three years or less); if equal division of the home and chattels would be repugnant to justice; or, in respect of other matrimonial property, if one spouse has made a clearly greater contribution to the marriage partnership.

Contributions are defined broadly. There is no presumption that contribution in monetary form is of greater value than any other kind.

Evidence Amendment Act 1977

This provides that in rape trials evidence relating to a complainant's sexual experience or reputation is excluded except where exclusion would be contrary to the interests of justice.

Domicile Act 1976

This Act provides for the separate domicile of married women.

Juries Amendment Act 1976 (now part of the Juries Act 1981)

This provided for equal responsibility for jury service for men and women by the application of the same grounds for exemption from jury service.

Government Superannuation Fund Amendment Act 1976

This removes the requirement that the widower of the superannuitant prove that he was financially dependent upon his wife before being entitled to the surviving spouse benefit.

Human Rights Commission Act 1977

This prohibits discrimination on the ground of sex in the fields of employment, education, accommodation, landholding, goods and services, access to public places and public facilities; and prohibits sexual discrimination in advertisements or notices about any of these matters.

Enforcement is by way of mediation by the Human Rights Commission. Where this is unsatisfactory proceedings may be brought before the Equal Opportunities Tribunal and there is a right of appeal to the Administrative Division of the High Court.

In addition, the Human Rights Commission has important general functions intended to effect the eradication of discrimination through education.

Citizenship Act 1977

This gives women the same right as men to pass on citizenship to their children.

State Services Amendment Act 1978

This gives members of the Public Service resigning for child care purposes preferential re-entry rights to the service up to four years after resignation or five years in the case of a woman entitled to maternity leave.

Family Proceedings Act 1980

This removes discrimination in the assessment of maintenance by providing that spouses have the same liability to maintain each other, and institutes a no-fault dissolution of marriage by making two years separation the only ground for divorce.

Guardianship Amendment Act 1980

This makes it quite clear that neither parent is to be preferred as the custodial parent solely by reason of sex.

Maternity Leave and Employment Protection Act 1980

This entitles a woman to six months maternity leave without pay where the woman has worked for an employer for at least 15 hours a week for at least 18 months before the expected date of delivery.

The woman is also entitled to some job protection in that the employer is required to keep her job open (although there are exceptions). If re-employment cannot be guaranteed the employer must give her preference for re-employment for six months after the end of her maternity leave. The Act prohibits dismissal because of pregnancy.

Social Security Amendment Acts 1976, 1978, 1979

The 1976 Act provides the right to social security at age 60 on the same terms for all women and men, and the 1978 and 1979 provisions grant all other weekly benefits (except widows) on the same terms to men and women.

Repeal of Section 13 of the Factories and Commercial Premises Act 1981 Order 1982

The Factories and Commercial Premises Act 1981 contained a section limiting the hours of employment of women in factories. The section provided for its own repeal by the Governor-General when New Zealand ceased to be bound by International Labour Organisation Convention 89 covering night work of women employed in industry. The section was repealed on 2 April 1982 by the repeal of section 13 of the Factories and Commercial Premises Act 1981 Order 1982.

Domestic Protection Act 1982

This provides new and improved remedies for the victims of domestic violence, married or unmarried.

Estate and Gift Duties Amendment Act 1983

This provides for a gift duty exemption where a matrimonial property agreement results in the non-owner spouse receiving half the matrimonial property. There have also been consequential changes in the income tax legislation recognising the equal sharing principle of the Matrimonial Property Act 1976.

3.3.1

Women have the same right as men to freely choose their spouse and to enter into marriage only with their free and full consent.

The Family Proceedings Act 1980 provides that a marriage concluded without the free consent of each spouse is void. Absence of consent to marriage has always been a ground for voiding a marriage at common law in New Zealand, and was incorporated into statute law in 1953.

01442
30

3.3.2

Husband and wife have the same rights and responsibilities during marriage. The Family Proceedings Act 1980 provides for equality of maintenance responsibilities with respect to both spousal and children's maintenance, and it makes no distinction between the spouses with respect to separation or dissolution of marriage. The Matrimonial Property Act 1976 provides for equality of property division. Other matters mentioned are governed by custom eg it is customary (not obligatory) for a woman to adopt her husband's name on marriage; women may choose whether or not to have a profession or occupation.

3.3.3

Spouses have the same rights and responsibilities in respect of ownership, acquisition, management, administration, enjoyment and disposition of property during marriage and at its dissolution. Under the Matrimonial Property Act 1976 each spouse is free to deal with his or her own property as he or she wishes during the marriage. When the marriage comes to an end the provisions of the Act apply. There is a presumption of equal division which may be displaced in some circumstances.

3.3.4

Under the Guardianship Act 1968 the mother and father of a child are each guardians of the child. (An unmarried mother may be sole guardian in some circumstances.) Both the mother and the father are entitled to custody of and access to the child.

The Adoption Act 1955 makes no provision limiting the rights of mothers as opposed to fathers in adoption matters.

01442
31

3.4.1

The minimum age for marriage is 16 with parental consent and 20 without parental consent. This is specified in the Marriage Act 1955. The age of 16 was set in 1933; the age of 20 was lowered from 21 in 1970.

3.4.2

Registration of marriages has been compulsory since the previous century. The current legislation is the Marriage Act 1955.

3.5

Under the Human Rights Commission Act 1977 a contract or other private instrument directed at restricting the legal capacity of women would be unlawful in the fields of employment; education; access to places, vehicles and facilities; provision of goods and services; and land, housing and other accommodation.

Annex G

Extracts of

01412
19

3.2 Access to Employment and Conditions of Work

3.2.1

The most significant piece of legislation designed to ensure women's access to employment in all sectors of economic and social activity and to achieve equality by the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women in all sectors of social and economic activity is the Human Rights Commission Act 1977 (See Part I, Section C and its Appendices III - VIII). Other legislative and administrative provisions taken to ensure women's access to employment are outlined elsewhere in this section (1.2 and Appendix I; , 1.3; 1.4; 3.1.1 and 3.2.2 - 3.2.4).

A number of practical measures taken by New Zealand indicate the priority given to women's employment:

Positive Action Policies

- The four official advisory groups representing the interests of women (Committee on Women, National Advisory Committee on Women and Education, NACEW, and WAC/VTC) produced an agreed definition of affirmative action in 1981:

  "Affirmative action is the taking of positive steps in order to achieve demonstrable progress towards equal opportunity for a designated group. It is a means to an end. The end is equal opportunity.

An affirmative action policy recognises that where equal opportunity exists in theory it does not necessarily work in practice. Such policies are designed to overcome practices in the system which discriminate against certain groups.

Each affirmative action programme has realistic attainable goals and is evaluated in terms of progress towards equal opportunity.

The four groups look forward to their respective departments making a firm commitment towards implementation of affirmative action".

The preferred term now is "positive action to promote equal opportunity" rather than "affirmative action".

- In 1982 the Vocational Training Council adopted a policy of positive action to promote equal opportunity.

- The New Zealand Employers' Federation announced its policy of Positive Action to Promote Equal Opportunity in 1982. The Human Rights Commission is working with the Federation and has offered assistance to either the Federation or individual employers who wish to develop equal opportunity programmes which would be suitable for their particular work force.

Equal Opportunity

- The State Services Commission published a statement on equal employment opportunities in its Annual Report for the financial year ending March 1981, and in the Public Service Official Circular in July 1981.

(The State Services Commission is concerned mainly with the planning and co-ordination of staffing in the Government service. It can provide the initiative to encourage greater efficiency within departments and greater inter-departmental co-operation. It has also conducted research on and commented on a range of issues in the social area, some of which have relevance well beyond the Government Sector; for example, child care.)

In 1982, an Equal Employment Opportunities Unit with the following functions was established within the State Services Commission:

* To be responsible for equal employment opportunity policy and programme development, co-ordination and evaluation.

* To be involved in the implementation of equal employment opportunity policy.

0141Z
21

* To provide equal employment advice and information to individual public servants, departments or agencies.

* To handle any casework referred to it by other sections of the Commission.

* To increase the effectiveness of the Public Service in meeting the needs of all group in the community and to develop within public servants a greater sensitivity to the different groups.

The Equal Employment Opportunities Unit's brief includes women, racial minority groups and the disabled.

Young Women's Opportunities

- The Women's Advisory Committee of the Vocational Training Council has carried out research in secondary schools to investigate secondary school influences on the career and training aspirations of girls (Appendix VIII : Summary of the Report on Secondary School Influences on the Training and Career Aspirations of Girls)

- Special vocational training courses have been held for young women (see 3.1.6), and the WAC/VTC has attempted to widen the vocational horizons of girls and women by supporting the Society for Research on Women in the production of case study "Personal Viewpoint" pamphlets on women who are succeeding in non-traditional occupations. Funding assistance for these pamphlets has come from ACWA, from individual women and from women's organisations including the National Council of Women.

- The Women Across the Workforce programme (1983) aimed to provide information on non-traditional careers and to accelerate changes in attitudes towards suitable employment for women (see 3.1.8).

- Arising out of the suggestion made to the Prime Minister that the Armed Forces could be more extensively used to train young unemployed, a committee of officials was convened and chaired by a Member of Parliament. The committee was known as the Task Force on Youth Training and it undertook a review of all governmental initiatives on employment and training. On the initiative of the National Advisory Committee on Women and Education (NACWE) joint consultations took place among the (then) four advisory bodies representing women's interests (ACWA, NACWE, NACEW, WAC/VTC) and submissions were made to the task force drawing attention to the crisis facing female school leavers and calling for positive initiatives to help them. The Task Force identified boys of low academic ability, girls in general, Maoris, and Pacific Islanders as being particularly at risk of unemployment and disdvantaged in the job market. As a result of the work of the Task Force, a School-leavers' Training and Employment Preparation Scheme was initiated to assist 15 and 16 year olds into employment, together with additional funds for transition from school to working life courses in schools, a youth entrepreneurship scheme, and extra careers advisors in schools.

The Minister of Labour announced a comprehensive package (based on the recommendations of the Task Force) of youth-related measures at the end of 1982. Care will be taken to ensure that the interests of women, youth, and Maori and Pacific Island people are adequately represented in the New District Employment and Training Advisory Committees, which were an outcome of the Task Force's deliberations.

- A pilot positive action programme was instituted in a selected employment district of the Department of Labour for a period of 6 months during 1983. Its aims were to promote wider job horizons for young women and to encourage employers, parents and other groups to facilitate the training and employment of young women, particularly in non-traditional areas.

  The programme consisted of five major activities:

  i) the counselling of unemployed female job-seekers aimed at suggesting wider job horizons;

  ii) advertising and public relations work among employers to secure vacancies and to seek a commitment for young women to be taken on;

  iii) an increase in the rate of referral of young unemployed women especially to unsubsidised jobs, but if these are not available, to subsidised ones;

  iv) a special training effort in non-traditional areas, including Job Exploration and Skills Courses;

  v) general public relations work aimed at parents, schools and community organisations.

  Under the programme approximately 100 young women were placed in training and employment in non-traditional areas. Two months after the official termination of the project 53 of these had moved into permanent employment.

  The employment officer assigned to the pilot programme made more than 150 personal visits to employers to secure vacancies and training placements for young women interested in non-traditional work. The vocational guidance counsellor working on the programme spoke to 161 unemployed young women and over 1,000 senior school students.

Training (YPTP) and Job Placements under the pilot positive action programme

Type of placement	No
Directly into unsubsidised permanent jobs	11
Directly into unsubsidised seasonal jobs	21
On introductory courses in non-traditional work*	30
On more specific skills courses in non-traditional work*	15
Job Exploration*	30
Training-in-Employment*	36
TOTAL	143

* Some trainees appear in more than one of these categories

Young women took on a wide variety of non-traditional work mainly at the sub-trades level. And a lucky few entered apprenticeships. The types of work were as follows:

electrical
general engineering
welding
motor mechanics
carpentry
butchery
painting-paperhanging
driving heavy duty vehicles
horticulture
storekeeping
roads maintenance
plumbing
plastering
sandblasting
aluminium joinery
car painting
carpet laying
crane signalling
general labouring

Married Women

The most recent educational activity undertaken by the Department of Labour in respect to married women's employment was a series of five pamphlets. These were entitled 'Women in the Paid Workforce' and were published in 1981. They focussed on the following areas:

i) 'Your Responsibilities' - advice for women going back to work on how to combine the responsibilities of a job with those of a family;

ii) 'Things you need to know' - laws relevant to working women, on income tax and how working affects social security benefits;

iii) 'Employment' - information on what jobs are available and how to find a job;

iv) 'Training' - information on the benefits of training, and training offered and where it is available;

v) 'Trade Unions' - information about benefits offered by Unions. Due to recent changes in New Zealand's Industrial Laws it has been withdrawn, although a new pamphlet may be produced.

Rather than aiming at the creation of social attitudes favourable to the employment of women these pamphlets were directed to married women who were returning to the workforce. However, informing women of their rights and responsibilities may be seen as the step in the modification of social attitudes absorbed by the women themselves and the rest of society.

Women in Specific Occupations

- Difficulties faced by women in the legal profession have been discussed on an informal basis by the New Zealand Law Society and the Chief Human Rights Commissioner. In November 1982 the Council of the New Zealand Law Society adopted the following statement "the position of women within the (legal) profession is at present of special concern to the Council. It is acknowledged by the Council that women practitioners, who are entering the profession in increasing numbers are experiencing particular difficulties within the profession. Discrimination against, or other unfair treatment, of women practitioners in respect of employment opportunities, remuneration, allocation of work, admission to partnership or any other matter is not only unfair but harmful to the profession's standing and ability to serve the community's needs. Any such act of discrimination or unfair treatment is a breach of Rule 3 and may lead to disciplinary proceedings".

  Rule 3 of the Code of Ethics was amended in 1982. (Regulation 3.1.2: "A practitioner shall not discriminate against nor treat unfairly any practitioner by reason of the colour, race, ethnic or national origin, sex, marital status or religious or ethical belief of that other practitioner".) Adoption of these amendments to the Code followed on a report from a committee established by the Auckland District Law Society. A second major report on the position of women in the profession was published in 1983 by the Wellington District Law Society.

- In 1979, the Department of Education established a research project to investigate teachers' career and promotion patterns. The aim of the project was to identify some of the reasons for women's relative absence from senior positions in the primary and secondary teaching services. The Teacher Career and Promotion Study examining why more women are not represented in senior positions, was published in

1982. While not one factor was found to be responsible for the relative absence of women from decision making positions, the study confirmed to some degree that women tended to be absent from senior positions through their predominant commitment to their family. It also confirmed that women know less about, and are less involved in, the promotion system and receive less encouragement in advancing their career than men. The study recommended a more flexible promotion system and greater awareness of encouragement to women to use that system. The information contained in the study is available to teacher organisations for use in submissions in their day to day consultations with the Department and in the review of staffing policy. The Department is continuing statistical monitoring in this area. (See Part II, Section C.)

- A series of national residential "Women in Management" courses have been run through the Department of Education's national in-service programme, in conjunction with the New Zealand Institute of Management, as a practical way of encouraging women to attain senior positions in the education system or in management.

- Pamphlets giving interview guidelines for female applicants for senior education positions and for members of interviewing panels have been produced by the Department of Education for distribution.

- Two other major studies on women's employment and career patterns should also be noted here: Women in the Media (See Part II, Section D) and Women and Men in Banking (See Part II, Section I).

Permanent Part-Time Work

- Discussions have been held between NACEW, the New Zealand Employers Federation and the Federation of Labour on permanent part-time employment and the raising of the status and benefits enjoyed by part-time workers. Discussion is also underway between State Services Commission and the Public Service Association on the implementation of a policy of permanent part-time work in the Public Service, although there has been little significant change in this area since 1979.

3.2.2 **Is the principle of equality of remuneration for men and women workers for a work of equal value laid down in a constitutional or legal provision and how is it implemented in practice (please communicate any available statistical data showing earning differentials between men and women)? Is there a guaranteed minimum basic wage for adult workers regardless of sex?**

Annex H

WORLD CONFERENCE/UN DECADE FOR WOMEN:

QUESTIONNAIRE TO GOVERNMENTS

PART II

Extracts of

C EDUCATION (INCLUDING EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF GIRLS)

1 Educational Legislation and Policy

2 Education and Training Programmes and Materials

3 School Enrolment in Primary and Secondary Education

4 Technical and Vocational Education and Training

5 Higher Education

6 Educational Personnel

7 Non-Formal or Out-of-School Education and Training

8 Research, Analysis and Dissemination of Information concerning Education and Training of Women

NEW ZEALAND RESPONSE JUNE 1984

1 EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION AND POLICY

1.1

During the decade the Department of Education has promoted a number of events and conducted a number of investigations into the position of women in education. The Education and Equality of the Sexes Conference in 1975, organised jointly by the department and the Committee on Women, was the springboard for other activities. In 1979 the National Advisory Committee on Women in Education was formed and an education officer with responsibility for women was appointed to the department. (See Appendix I - A copy of the then Minister of Education's policy statement on women and education (1978).) The present Minister of Education endorsed the statement in November 1979 as Government policy.

Activities included women in management courses, investigations of the extent of sexism in school texts, a major research study on the reasons for women's relative absence from senior teaching positions, a careers education video to encourage young women to consider non-traditional occupations, a pilot equal opportunities programme in one district aimed at raising teachers' awareness of sex stereotyping in schools, its harmful effects, and practical steps they could take to ensure pupils of both sexes had equal opportunities. The department has also published an Equal Opportunities in Schools pamphlet designed to increase teachers' awareness of equality issues in primary schools and kindergartens.

The overall effects of these activities have been difficult to gauge, with often contradictory tendencies. There are indications of some positive changes in the position of women as pupils and teachers during the decade. Women are now more likely to stay on for a fifth or sixth year at secondary school, to take mathematics or science subjects, and to take advantage of extra-mural university study. The monitoring of women's representation in senior teaching positions has also showed a small but positive increase in the senior positions held by women. On the other hand, the negative effects of the economic recession on female school leavers, women re-entering the workforce and women teachers careers have been serious.

1.2

Education legislation and policy on women deals with an area where long term advancement can only come through changes in attitude. Difficulties in implementing policy are often a consequence of these differences in attitude.

2 EDUCATION AND TRAINING PROGRAMMES AND MATERIALS

2.1

New syllabuses in home economics and workshop craft for forms 1-4 are being trialled in 50 schools at present. Copies of the draft syllabuses have been sent to all schools for information and comment. Part of the reason for trials has been the time allocation, for both syllabuses envisage girls and boys taking part. In fact most forms 1 and 2 students, boys and girls alike, take both subjects. The intention is to give all students significant courses of equal length and emphasis in both subjects.

These trials have implications for any revision of the secondary core curriculum which may include such subjects becoming part of the learning experience for all students.

2.2

All curriculum officers attempt to maintain a spirit of sex equality in curriculum and resource developments. One example, out of many of such moves to break down sex stereotyping, is from the physical education programme. In 1980, the Minister of Education approved the replacement of two former handbooks, which were written specifically for girls and for boys, with a publication called "Fitness for Living". This was designed to no longer separate the programmes for girls and boys and to

encourage, where practical, the co-educational teaching of the subject. Efforts are made to ensure that all working parties, curriculum panels and advisory committees contain a balance of the sexes.

2.3

New Zealand has no "national development programme for women". The Commission for the Environment, which aims to actively promote the protection and enhancement of the New Zealand environment, is one of several agencies which are working towards co-ordinating environmental education at all levels of society, including schools and produces selected educational material.

2.4

All syllabuses and materials produced are for all students irrespective of sex. Every effort is made to remove elements of sex stereotyping and to treat all students as equal. The main obstacle is a conservative community and, to a lesser extent, teaching force. In an attempt to overcome this the Department of Education has published pamphlets on equal opportunities in schools.

3 SCHOOL ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

3.1

The relevance of this question to New Zealand is limited by the compulsory nature of the education system. Beyond the school leaving age of 15 there has been an increase in girls returning for a fifth or sixth year at secondary school. This is in part a reflection of the employment situation for school leavers.

3.2

There is no specific programme relating to this area. However the Department of Education is aware of difficulties facing rural education and has special staffing and education policies to compensate for those difficulties.

4 TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

4.1

There have been a number of special programmes/projects in technical institutes.

The first programme, initiated by both the Women's Advisory Committee of VTC and the National Advisory Committee on Women and Education (NACWE) with the co-operation of the Department of Education, was conducted at Auckland Technical Institute in 1977. The ATI courses in 1977 and 1978 resulted in about 14 young women becoming apprenticed in radio and TV servicing. A short course at Manukau Technical Institute in 1981 introduced a group of girl school leavers to basic engineering skills and also in 1981 Wellington Polytechnic reserved 50% of the places in a computer technology course for women.

Other endeavours to promote opportunities for girls/women in the non-traditional and high technology areas continue. A recent example was an opportunity provided for young women to investigate a career in technology, particularly telecommunications, electronics and computers. To allow full consideration of the courses and associated careers the staff of Wellington Polytechnic in conjunction with the Department of Education held a seminar at Wellington Polytechnic in September 1983. There was an excellent response and 35 young women attended the seminar. Feedback indicates it was a very worthwhile exercise.

Departmental efforts continue in endeavouring to promote the reservation of a high proportion of places for girls/women within a high technology AAVA one year, three-in-one full-time technicians course.

There is a conscious move to ensure 50% of the places in Young Persons Training Programmes are filled by girls.

4.2

In the tertiary area Technical Institutes and Community Colleges are co-educational. Policy decisions and social acceptance have increased the range of course options available

to girls and women. However, numbers entering non-traditional courses remain low and consequently segregation of sexes tends to occur according to the courses selected.

4.4

Schools have made a special effort to emphasise the need for girls to take mathematics and science and over the decade there has been a steady increase in the number of girls taking these subjects. In 1983 88.8% girls took mathematics in F5 (94.64% boys) and 58.96% of girls took science (69.86% boys).

In addition the Department of Education has required special emphasis to be put into widening girls' horizons, when new Careers Advisers are trained.

With the emphasis on career education in schools, a number of audio visuals have been produced (videos, posters and slide-tape sets) which show both sexes in non sex-stereotyped occupations.

In addition the department has helped with positive discrimination schemes initiated by the Department of Labour (Try a Trade day, New Plymouth scheme for girl technicians etc).

Career education resource centres have been provided with a large amount of material showing different role models for working women.

4.5

Major obstacles are:

(a) attitudes and expectations of both women and men.

Women do not necessarily perceive themselves in non-traditional roles or at the upper levels of a career. The process of goal raising is an ongoing one; as is the awareness raising of teachers and tutors as to the effect of student/teacher interaction on expectations of young women. Steps are being implemented in this area (eg awareness training seminars for tutors) but only on informal and spasmodic bases.

(b) the economic situation.
The depressed economy is limiting job opportunities, therefore narrowing opportunities and increasing competition.

The economy and lack of jobs generally militates against change. Girls are a disproportionate part of the school leaver unemployed and those who are older are often not counted, as eligibility for unemployment benefit is dependent upon spouses income; married women who are not the major income earners in their families do not always register as unemployed.

Solutions

Schools will endeavour to continue to encourage girls aspirations to rise. The emphasis for role reversal could get some prominence at the 25-30 age group when some of the very competent women in the workforce are making career changes.

There are now more diverse role models for girls (and this is particularly noticeable in Broadcasting), but generally the 'first job' falls into traditional patterns through lack of other opportunity. (See Part II, Section A.)

5 HIGHER EDUCATION

5.1

The percentage of women students in the universities has been rising steadily for some years. For example in the Reports of the University Grants Committee and University Institutions for 1982, the University of Auckland noted "Women made up only 26% of all students in 1965 and 31.7% in 1972, but in 1982 the

figure reached 43.9%. The proportions of women going into many formerly largely male courses has also been changing and the faculties have been trying to encourage this. Increases include commerce 28% in 1982 from 12% in 1972, law 41% (16.4%) and science 32% (21.8%).

In 1983, the University of Canterbury recorded a steady rise in the proportion of women students from 33% in 1974 to 43% in 1983. Women constituted 49% of all first-year students. Proportionately fewer women enrolled in arts courses than in 1974 but there were significantly more women in commerce and law. Women represented 27% of the 1983 commerce graduates and 35% of law graduates compared with 13% in both faculties in 1974.

National figures for 1983 on graduate numbers note a significant increase in the number of women graduating in Dentistry (28.8% compared with 18.8% in 1982) and Veterinary Science (43.3% compared with 25.4% in 1982). Excluding Home Science, however, the faculty showing the highest proportion of women is Education with 67.6% (compared with 56.6% in 1979). The number of women graduating in Agriculture/Forestry now stands at 23.2%. This area has shown an uninterrupted increase since 1979.

During the Decade there has been an increase in the numbers of adults returning to university to gain further qualifications after some time away from the formal education system. Universities, through their continuing education units, offer preliminary courses for mature students, a high percentage of whom are women.

6 EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL

6.1

As of January 1 1978, following negotiations between the Combined State Unions and the State Services Co-ordinating Committee, provisions outlining the elimination of discrimination in the State Services were introduced. The new conditions provided for:

(a) removal of motherhood increments;

(b) equal entitlement to removal expenses for married men and women;

(c) equal eligibility for pool housing for married men and women;

(d) eligibility for leave to care for a sick spouse or child regardless of whether or not the spouse works;

(e) replacement of married allowance with a dependants allowance available to men and women on an equal basis.

Maternity leave and child care provisions are also available. Women who have taken the five year child care leave in the primary service have not been deemed to have broken service. (The term 'broken service' applies only to primary teachers).

The continuous service provisions were incorporated into the Education (Assessment, Classification and Appointment) Regulations 1976 at the beginning of 1982 and they were designed to provide a priority of appointment, for basic scale positions, to teachers who have maintained continuity of service in State primary schools for the previous 36 months or since completing a Teachers College course.

When the continuous service criteria were introduced specific provision was made for teachers who leave the service for maternity purposes. Teachers with continuous service who resign because of pregnancy or for child care purposes and who are absent from the service for a period of over 12 months but under five years in the case of a woman, or under four years in the case of a man, are considered to have maintained continuous service. Situations in which a break in service might also be disregarded would be where the break has occurred for medical reasons or where there are compassionate family circumstances. However, each case is considered on its own merits.

6.2

For some colleges informal awareness-raising seminars and staff training sessions have been held in an effort to increase awareness of tutors about the range of factors which impinge on the educational opportunities for girls.

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6.3

General in-service courses for "Women in Education" and "Women in Management" have been held. The National Advisory Committee on Women in Education initiated a series of seven national residential Women in Management courses which were run through the department's national in-service programme from 1979-81. Almost 100 women attended the week-long courses. A number of follow-up regional courses ranging from one day seminars to week-long residential courses have been run by those women. In all, the programme reached an estimated 1,000 women. In 1983 there were moves to compile awareness-raising packages to be utilised in pre-service and in-service training of teachers. (See also 6.1).

6.4

Proportion of all Positions held by Women in the Primary Service

	1981
Principal	7.9%
Deputy Principal	22.9%
Senior Teacher Junior Classes	87.6%
Senior Teacher	56.2%
Scale A Teacher	80.1%
Year 1 Teacher	80.0%
All teachers:	64.8%

Proportion of all Positions held by Women in the Secondary Service

	1981
Principal	11.2%
Deputy Principal	16.6%
Senior Master/Mistress	62.7%
Position of Responsibility(PR)	
PR4	11.6%
PR3	13.8%
PR2	24.9%
PR1	37.8%
Assistant Teacher	47.4%

Proportion of all Positions held by Women in Teachers Colleges

	1984
Principal Lecturer	14.2%
Senior Lecturer	18.3%
Lecturer	34.7%
Part-time Lecturer	62.8%
Relieving Lecturer	47.0%
Total	28.7%

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Proportion of all Positions held by Women in Technical Institutes

	1984
Senior Tutors	11.7%
Female Tutors	28.5%
Part-time Tutors	63.8%
Relieving Tutors	50.4%
Total	28.9%

Educational Class (385.1) 1983 in the Public Service

In the Educational Occupational Class there are only 33 women as compared with 251 men. This is indicative of those in administrative level. Of the 13 directors in the Education Department only one is a women.

Senior Education Officers	2
Senior Inspectors (Secondary)	1
Education Officers	16
Inspectors (Primary)	5
Inspectors (Secondary)	9
	33

Psychological Services 1983

Of the 42 senior or district psychologists 5 are women.

6.5

In 1982 the Department of Education published the Teacher Career and Promotion Study which examined why more women were not represented in senior positions in the teaching service. While no one factor was found to be responsible the study confirmed to some degree that women tended to be absent from senior positions through their predominant commitment to their family. It also confirmed that women know less about, and are less involved in, the promotion system and receive less encouragement in advancing their career than men. Clearly the paucity of women in senior positions provides a limited pool of women for appointment to the 385.1 class and that class

reflects this difficulty. Continued monitoring of information indicates that women's participation in the promotion process continues to increase but at the same time competition for positions is also increasing.

The Department has attempted to correct this imbalance through the publication of equal opportunities at interview pamphlets for women applicants and board members; inclusion in all education officers' duty lists the responsibility to take into account the changing role of women; and continued monitoring of data on women in the Service.

7 NON-FORMAL OR OUT-OF-SCHOOL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Not really applicable: adult literacy programmes are available through the continuing education networks for those who require special assistance.

Note: Non-formal or Out-of-School Education and Training

Once again, given New Zealand's long established education service these questions are not really applicable. Immigrant women have been well catered for since 1979. There is an ongoing Government commitment to refugee language and orientation programmes. There has also been a substantial increase over recent years in courses in English as a second language and literacy programmes.

However, it is worth noting here that as English is New Zealands only official language, the Maori people have traditionally been expected to attain a high level of competence in spoken and written English although few New Zealanders of European descent can display an equal level of competence in Maori. Maori women's groups have led a campaign to encourage the use of the Maori language and are pressing for better provision in schools for bi-lingual education. In response to this there has been a marked increase in the numbers of non-Polynesian New Zealanders learning Maori.

There is no body co-ordinating adult education specifically for women, but women are active as users and providers in continuing and community education networks.

Major agencies are:

1. The National Council of Adult Education (NCAE) which advises the government and policy makers on the development of continuing education and provides services to assist other organisations.

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Emphasis is given to self-determination, encouraging non-formal and small group learning, and building networks.

2. Citizen's Advice Bureaux which provide a wide range of community services, such as free legal advice, budget advisory services, training and seminars in line with local needs.

3. Community Colleges, Technical Institutes, Polytechnics which provide courses in trade training, business studies, nurse training, agriculture, horticulture, crafts, parent education, skills training for unemployed people. Frequently an institute or college has its own distinctive regional emphasis. Some offer community education courses, and non-formal educational and community development work.

4. NZ Association for Continuing and Community Education. This is a voluntary organisation which brings together employed and voluntary community educators from a wide range of institutions and agencies.

5. Rural Education Activities Programmes (R.E.A.P). REAPS are provided in rural communities with the aim of improving the sharing and co-ordination of resources. Provision is usually made for itinerant pre-school teachers, guidance/visiting teachers, liaison between schools, and continuing education advisors.

6. Universities

New Zealand has a traditional policy of open entry to the universities by all who are qualified to matriculate. People over the age of 21 who do not have the usual academic qualifications can also apply for admission to a university.

In addition to their academic programmes, universities offer to the general public evening and weekend courses through their extension or continuing education departments.

7. Workers Educational Association (Inc) NZ

NZWEA is composed of constitutent voluntary educational associations which aim to meet the educational requirements of adults, in forms suited to spare-time study and designed to help in furthering individual and social development. The Association works with other organisations in the field. Activities include classes, study groups, lectures, weekend or holiday courses, film showings etc.

Community Colleges, Technical Institutes and secondary schools all offer courses that may be suitable for women wishing to retrain after a break from the workforce or education system. In secondary schools, the adult students study the programmes available in the normal curriculum. A total of 2996 females and 659 males are enrolled (full and part time) in secondary schools. Most sit School Certificate or University Entrance examinations.

The Department of Social Welfare advises that, since 1981, Government has made provision for the payment of emergency unemployment benefit to:

- persons who are continuing full-time education at a secondary school after the year in which they turn 18;
- adult students at secondary school who are full-time students; and
- young persons who are attending a pre-employment course at a secondary school or community college.

In November 1983 the Government introduced a training incentive allowance of $15 a week for widows and domestic purposes beneficiaries to assist them with the costs of attending an approved training course.

Further information on this is detailed in Part II Section A 3.2.5 under Additional Benefits for Women.

8 RESEARCH, ANALYSIS AND DISSEMINATION OF INFORMATION CONCERNING EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF WOMEN

8.1

There are no research centres or institutes concerned specifically with the education and training of women.

The nearest approach to one was the National Advisory Committee on Women and Education (1979-82) which replaced an ad hoc committee set up to organise the 1975 Conference on Education and Equality of the Sexes. The Committee continued to monitor the implementation of the recommendations and its work expanded to the extent that the Minister of Education formally constituted the committee on a revised basis as a national advisory body in 1979. Research proposals arising from recommendations passed during IWY were developed by the committee and in 1979 the National Advisory Committee on Women and Education (NACWE) then asked the Department of Education to take up the project of greatest priority, a study of the careers of men and women teachers (See 6.5).

There are two kinds of research organisations which may do work on issues related to the education of women.

(a) Research organisations concerned with women in general, e.g. Women's Studies Centres in universities and the voluntary Society for Research on Women. The Universities and the Society for Research on Women are entirely autonomous. Apart from a small annual grant for national and local projects administered through the Department of Social Welfare, SROW's work depends upon voluntary labour and enthusiasm. (See Appendix II "The Need for Information, Then and Now", Chapter 1 from Urban Women, SROW Revised Edition 1981).

(b) Research centres concerned with education and training in general including the education and training of women. The Vocational Training Council has a women's advisory

comittee and has sponsored one piece of research on the "hidden curriculum" but is not itself a research centre.

The New Zealand Council for Educational Research is the best example of this second type of centre. NZCER is an autonomous research organisation operating under its own Act of Parliament and supported substantially by government funds. Approximately 40 people, about 14 engaged in research are employed in this institution. In 1974 the Council appointed a research officer to carry out projects in early childhood education and in 1975 established an Early Childhood Unit. This unit, staffed by women, has carried out studies of women employed in early childhood services, and of women as parents. It is also frequently consulted by women's organisations, by women researchers and has worked collaboratively with women's organisations such as the Society for Research on Women, the Maori Women's Welfare League, the New Zealand Playcentre Federation, the New Zealand Association of Child Care Centres, the New Zealand Free Kindergarten Teachers Association and various community groups.

Members of the Early Childhood Unit have assisted women to do research on a variety of topics e.g. a study of the development of the school curriculum for girls. Other sections of the New Zealand Council for Education Research, such as its Adult Learning Unit, have, from time to time, made studies related to women's occupational groups.

The Early Childhood Unit has had a continuing interest in research related to New Zealand women, including Maori and Pacific Islands women and to the development of methods of research that fit women's situation in society.

Although its research programme is annually examined by the National Research Advisory Council, in general the work of NZCER it is not integrated into an overall national research programme. The work of the Early Childhood Unit however, has encouraged women in other parts of New Zealand to join in with research programmes initiated by the Unit. The Unit has long practised collaborative and participatory methods of research.

8.4

The Department of Education advises that a number of research projects have been carried out which relate to influences on the education and training of girls and women.

(a) There have been studies of sex-role stereotyping in science and mathematics textbooks and school journals;

(b) Papers have been written reviewing New Zealand and overseas studies and presenting New Zealand statistical data on the position of Girls and Science and Girls and Mathematics;

(c) Several studies have investigated and monitored the position of women in teaching - The Teacher Career and Promotion Study and the four supplementary papers for this study. Since then, the number of women applying for senior primary positions has been monitored each year and the number of women applying for senior secondary positions is being monitored this year

(d) Many of the Department of Education's research reports analyse data separately for males and females, eg a survey of school leavers in the Rotorua/Bay of Plenty area; retention of teachers in specialist courses (Education of the Deaf and Education of the Disabled); retention and promotion of teachers trained in different teacher training courses; and applicants and entrants to teachers college.

Although the schools system has traditionally offered different subjects to boys and girls, especially at secondary level (see Ruth Fry, It's Different for Daughters, forthcoming, NZCER) girls do rather better than boys in the secondary school public examinations and almost equal boys in mathematics achievement. They also do better than men in the undergraduate university classes. Despite parental/teacher attitudes, the 'hidden curriculum', timetabling conflicts, and so on that beset the education of girls, it seems likely that the compulsory segment of education, up to 15 years in New Zealand, does not necessarily disadvantage girls, although concern has been expressed (see below) that Maori girls may be 'learning to lose' - either their culture, or academically, if the two are seen to be mutually exclusive.

Many vocational courses require a student to be in employment before they are accepted and this counts against women who seek jobs in non-traditional areas The sex-stereotyping that still occurs in schools undoubtedly reinforces traditional expectations but it may be that schools are no worse than New Zealand society as a whole and in many instances are a lot better.

Unfortunately the education system and girls' performance within it have tended to be the focus of attention rather than the selection processes for employment, opportunity for maternity leave, rights of re-entry to employment and opportunities for child care. Sufficient women in New Zealand have now entered employment in previously male spheres to demonstrate that it is possible to do this when the associated social support is present. What keeps women out of many jobs, frequent the most lucrative ones, are the attitudes and expectations of those around them and the lack of concrete measures to help them with family responsibilities rather than lack of educational opportunity or lack of personal ambition. The restricted range of occupations for women tends to be reflected in school courses and in vocational education but even so the courses of education and training offered to women are often in advance of the occupational slots available to them.

All is not well with education. Women teachers in co-educational schools and in tertiary institutions do not hold their share of management positions and school boards are wary of appointing females to the position of principal if males are available. However, women are making gains in the teachers unions and it is becoming harder to make restrictive employment practices stick.

There is also growing pressure from the Maori people to see national educational provisions to ensure that young children are no longer disadvantaged by a mono-cultural educational system. While the establishment of Maori language nests (Kohanga Reo) has been a remarkably successful form of pre-school education to ensure the maintenance of the spoken language and to give children an opportunity to grow secure in their cultural and tribal identity, the Maori Women's Welfare League is concerned that inadequate provisions in primary schools will cause the children to lose this early advantage.

They are pressing for more, fluent, speakers of Maori in the school system, and a system of alternative schools where Maori values can be taught has also been proposed.

There has been a series of meetings on Maori Education recently, in view of the Maori failure rates in examinations such as School Certificate and University Entrance, and the need for Maori culture to be an essential part of all school programmes in New Zealand. The first Maori woman did not graduate from a New Zealand University until 1949 and there were no Maori women doctorates until this decade.

Despite changes in the education system during the 1970's to include Maori studies courses in teachers' colleges and universities and an increase in the number of Maori language courses available in schools and through the adult education network, there is still a need for a stronger Maori component in the educational curriculum, and increased public understanding of the problems young Maori women can face.

8.5

Research on the education and training of women has produced a heightened awareness of the need to ensure that policies promote equal opportunity. For example, publicity about the importance of various school subjects in later vocational training has led to increased proportions of girls taking mathematics and science subjects. Non-sexist books for early readers have been produced by the Department of Education. The Teacher Career and Promotion Study was a landmark, and continues to be widely quoted. It is one of the few projects on the education of women known outside New Zealand.

8.6

The Department of Education has the major responsibility for data collection. In 1979 the New Zealand Association for Research in Education was set up. For the first conference the organisers commissioned a state of the art paper reviewing research on the education of girls. Women have used the association's annual conferences for the dissemination of research findings about women in education.

The Women's Studies Association is a national body which holds annual conferences, publishes a newsletter and is about to launch a Women's Studies Journal, and disseminates information about research studies on all topics relating to women.

Information is also used in in-service training, in university teaching and adult education.

8.7

From the point of view of a research worker consulted in the preparation of this section of the response, "there is continuing prejudice on the part of the male research establishment against the so-called "soft" or qualitative research well suited to investigating the position of women, and the low status of most women working in the education departments of the universities makes it difficult for them to pioneer and to gain acceptance for research methods suited to women".

Measures Taken to Overcome Difficulties

(a) Women setting up their own research and dissemination networks e.g. Society for Research on Women.

(b) Incorporation of research on women in more general projects.

(c) The inclusion of information on men in a study on women e.g. Teacher Career and Promotion Study (NACWE/Department of Education).

(d) Use of women's organisations in participatory studies in which women's labour replaces the funding generally needed to employ research workers.

(e) Shoe-string projects, e.g. After School and Holiday Care Survey (NZCER).

(f) Setting up Research Units e.g. Early Childhood Unit, NZCER which has had a chance to establish a solid research reputation in a field affecting women and which offers research seminars, and itself has a network of support throughout New Zealand.

Annex J

01412
31

3.2.5. Measures taken to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of social security

The Department of Social Welfare advises that in general, since October 1979, men and women have qualified on precisely the same terms for all types of social security benefits available under the Social Security Act, 1964 except in one area. The only area of exception is the case of widows and women alone who may qualify for a benefit in circumstances where a widower or man alone may not.

Retirement

The right to social security at age 60 on the same terms for men and women was introduced by the Social Security Amendment Act 1976. The scheme, introduced from 9 February 1977, provides for a universal old age pension called "national superannuation" payable at age 60, subject to a residential qualification and subject to the deduction of income tax. A married superannuitant with an unqualified male or female spouse has the option of receiving the unmarried rate without an income test, or receiving, subject to an income test, an additional amount for the spouse.

Unemployment Benefit

Married women now qualify for the unemployment benefit on exactly the same terms as married men. Equal opportunity to become dependent spouses was granted to men from 1 October 1979 in the Social Security Amendment Act, 1979. Prior to that date the maximum rate of the benefit that married women could qualify for was half the married couple rate. Since 1 October 1979 women have qualified for the full married couple rate which includes an allowance for a dependent spouse. Payment of the benefit to women is subject to the same income test as for men, with the spouse's income being taken into account.

Sickness and Invalidity Benefits

Since 10 January 1979, married women have qualified for the full married couple rate (which includes payment for a dependent spouse) if they are in receipt of the sickness or invalid benefit. The income test is the same as that applied to a married man with a dependent wife. This provision was introduced in the Social Security Amendment Act, 1978.

Access to most social security provisions in New Zealand is governed by the presence or absence of other "family" income. This means that where married men continue to be the chief earners of family income, married women will not qualify for benefits in their own right, but rather as dependants of their husband.

In the case of the sickness benefit, an additional concept (since removed) was introduced in October 1975 by Section 8 of the Social Security Amendment Act 1975. This provided for the payment of a sickness benefit to a married person for a period of up to 13 weeks, without regard to the income of the spouse, if the applicant and the spouse of the applicant had been in full-time employment (20 hours a week) for a period of at least 12 months immediately preceding the date on which the applicant became incapacitated for work. The provision was designed to assist couples to adjust to the temporary loss of one income. In 1983, this provision was removed so that the sickness benefit of the married person is now income-tested against the income of both partners, as in the case of all other income-tested benefits.

Benefits on Death

In 1975, in the provision of death benefits, there was a presumption that where a husband and wife were living together, the wife was totally dependent on the husband, in the absence of proof to the contrary. This provision, which discriminated against widowers, was removed in the 1982 Social Security Amendment Act. The benefit on death is now available to widowers on the same basis as to widows.

Additional Benefits for Women

There are some areas where women have more rights than men in the present social security legislation. A "male breadwinner" assumption remains in the Social Security Act, 1964, in Sections 21 and 27C. Men who are widowers do not qualify for a widows benefit under Section 21, but may, if they have one or more dependent children, qualify for the domestic purposes benefit under Section 27B. They cannot, however, qualify for a domestic purposes benefit under the "woman alone" provisions.

Domestic Purposes Benefit for Women Alone

Under section 27C of the Social Security Act, 1964, an income-tested domestic purposes benefit is available to "women alone", by which is meant a woman who has never married or who has lost the support of her husband. When this benefit was introduced in 1973, "women alone" could qualify for a benefit under the same age and duration criteria as applied to widows without dependent children.

However, in the Social Security Amendment Act, 1977, which came into force on 1 April 1978, a further provision was introduced which is more stringent for a "woman alone" than for a widow. A widow who no longer has a dependent child qualifies for a widows benefit if she was married for at least 15 years, or the period of her marriage or marriages and her later care and control of at least one child under 16 years totals not less than 15 years. A "woman alone" who has had the care and

control of one or more dependent children needs to cease to have the care and control of children after she has attained the age of 50 years to qualify for the domestic purposes benefit. The change was introduced because of the young age of many single mothers and the recognition that they could get paid employment when they ceased to have dependent children, or alternatively they could qualify for unemployment benefit.

Domestic Purposes Benefit for Parents Alone

Since 1973, unsupported female and male parents alone who are over 16 years of age (divorced, separated, unmarried and those whose spouse has been imprisoned) and who have dependent children have been equally entitled to the domestic purposes benefit, under section 27B of the Social Security Act, 1964.

The 1980 Social Security Amendment Act legislated for a new system for recovering part of the cost of domestic purposes benefit from those primarily responsible for the support of the children of the beneficiary.

The legislation provides that when a single parent applies for a domestic purposes benefit, the Department of Social Welfare is to assess an amount which the non-custodial parent, that is, the liable parent, is expected to contribute to the cost of the benefit. The department than obtains this contribution from the liable parent. The new system replaced the former requirement that a single parent obtain a maintenance order or enter into, and register, a satisfactory maintenance agreement before qualifying for the benefit. This legislation came into effect on 1 April 1981.

An emergency maintenance allowance is paid to single parents who do not meet the statutory qualifications for a domestic purposes benefit, for example, where they have not nominated a liable parent.

A report was prepared for the Department of Social Welfare in 1980 by C R Wylie called Factors Affecting the Participation in the Workforce of Female Heads of One Parent Families. A major finding of this study was that women who have been receiving the domestic purposes benefit for a prolonged period generally tend to lack educational qualifications, work skills and experience. This, combined with a general lack of self-confidence, mitigates against them securing employment.

As pointed out by Dr Wylie in her report, in centering their lives around full-time child and house care, particularly where the women cannot afford outside interests and have a narrow circle of friends, family and acquaintances, "the sphere of work becomes a world apart". The report showed that the women expected to resume work at some stage, but many were uncertain of how to bridge the gap between their domestic-based lives and the different demands of employment. In discussing training, the women were often, in fact, talking about re-entry

programmes in which they could brush up skills, gain confidence, and have some proof for employers of their desire to obtain employment.

Training Allowances

In 1983 the Government decided that a training allowance should be made available to domestic purposes and widow beneficiaries who attend occupationally related training courses. The purpose of the allowance is to encourage beneficiaries to develop work skills and self confidence that will assist them to obtain or regain employment.

The allowance may be paid up to a maximum of $15 a week to meet such costs as:

(a) transport to and from the training course;

(b) child care costs; and

(c) tuition fees, books, stationery etc.

It is hoped that the availability of the allowance for domestic purposes and widows beneficiaries to acquire work skills or retrain will help women to re-enter the workforce, particularly where there have been technological advances in employment which act to the detriment of those who have been away from the workforce for a considerable time.

Annex K

3.2.4 Major changes that have occurred since 1975 in maternity protection

The Maternity Leave and Employment Protection Act 1980 came into force on 1 April 1981. It allows women who are having a baby or intending to adopt a child under five years of age to take 26 weeks unpaid maternity leave. Entitlement to this leave depends upon the woman having worked with the same employer for a period of 18 months for at least 15 hours per week immediately preceding the expected date of delivery (or the adoption) of the child.

At the end of the 26 weeks period of leave, the employee may return to her position if her employer has been able to keep it open for her. (The onus is on the employer to demonstrate good reason why the job cannot be kept for her.) Alternatively, she is entitled to first preference over other applicants for

any reasonably comparable position for which a vacancy occurs in the employer's enterprise during the six months after her leave expires.

The Act also provides that it is unlawful to terminate the employment of a women because of her pregnancy or her state of health during pregnancy. The Act contains complaint procedures for the woman to use where she believes that any provisions of the Act have been constrained or rights to maternity leave have been affected to her disadvantage by her employer.

As the Act sets minimum requirements it does not apply to female employees who are entitled under any other Act or award, agreement or contract of employment to rights and benefits that are as favourable or more favourable to the employee. This is the case with the terms of employment of State employees which provide for maternity leave without pay of up to 12 months for full-time employees with more than 1 year's service, or up to 6 months' for lesser periods of service. When a woman returns from maternity leave she is entitled to resume work in her old position or a similar one at her previous salary and grading. The job must also be at the same locality and require a similar level of responsibility.

Provision is also made for State employees to seek release from their employment to care for a dependent pre-school child (or children) and subsequently apply to re-enter the service provided a suitable vacancy is available that meets specified conditions. (In cases where physical fitness requirements for positions exist, the person seeking re-entry must meet these.) The provision may apply to more than one absence but the total period of absence may not exceed 4 years.

Benefits

As far as benefits for maternity protection are concerned, there have been no major changes since 1975 in the provisions of the Social Security Act 1964. Under this Act, unsupported women who are pregnant can qualify for sickness benefit three months before giving birth and for domestic purposes benefit or emergency maintenance allowance when they have a child to support. Working women who have a legal or defacto spouse in full-time employment do not generally qualify for benefits. Payment of all benefits is subject to an income test based on the joint income of the couple. To grant maternity benefits to working women would require an exception to be made to these rules, since most women who qualified would have a spouse in full-time employment, and would be counter to the general philosophy of the social security scheme of paying benefits to those in financial need.

All benefits paid in New Zealand under the Social Security Act are funded from general taxation.

Annex L

01412
34

3.2.6 Types of Child Care Facilities:

The New Zealand Child Care Association is a non-governmental organisation primarily concerned with promoting a high standard in early childhood care and education, and providing training courses, support and advisory services for child care centres. The Association has supplied the following list of available child care facilities (which may also cater to women not in the paid workforce):

> "Statistics at October 1983 show that there were 553 Child Care Centres registered by the Social Welfare Department providing care and education for 14,654 children. The figures have been analysed in the following manner:

01412
35

	Centres	Places in 1983
Kindergartens	253	6152
Full Day Centres	258	7095
Specialist Centres (eg for intellectually handicapped children)	49	1084
Te Kohanga Reo	50	423

"Of these, the full day centres, and Te Kohanga Reo can cater specifically to the needs of working women, although for part-time workers, the others can be useful.

"The places for 1977 were:

Private kindergarten & play centres	3,601
Community kindergarten & play centres	2,975
Full day centres	3,272
Industrial, Teachers College & University Creches	1,021
Family/domestic care centres	291
Shoppers Creches	658
Specialist Centres	792

"These figures show that there has been a significant increase in the number of places for children requiring full day care.

> There is however still a desperate shortage of places especially for the under two year olds...."

During the last ten years there has also been a rapid expansion in 'family day care' which is full or part-time care arranged in a private home by an agency which selects carers and puts families needing child care in touch with them. The agency supervises the child care and provides support and advice for parents and carers. Children are usually cared for in ones or twos and arrangements are made for them to attend a playgroup with the caregiver once a week. Some after-school care is arranged on the same basis.

There is also a growing community awareness of the need for school holiday care and recreation programmes which cater to the needs of employed parents.

Government Assistance

Details of the Department of Social Welfare's subsidies to child care centres and to parents are provided below. Some city councils also provide assistance to centres but the extent of this support varies from area to area and does not exist in all. The Department of Education is also involved with most forms of early childhood care and education, either through Government grants or professional support (See Appendix IX: A Key to Pre-School Services, 1982).

Section 124(1) of the Social Security Act 1964 reads:

> "(1) There shall from time to time be paid out of the Consolidated Revenue Account, from money appropriated by Parliament for the purpose -
>
> (d) Any money that may be appropriated by Parliament for the purpose of..... any welfare programme approved by the Minister of Social Welfare."

Under this section, since 1973, Government has paid subsidies towards the costs of day-care for pre-school children. Several different kinds of subsidy towards the cost of child care have been developed, including capital, rental and maintenance subsidies for voluntary agency based centres, a capitation subsidy based on the financial need of parents, and since 1983 salary subsidies for centres which employ trained staff.

In 1978 Government set up an Advisory Committee on Child Care Centres, which published its report A Review of the 1960 Child Care Centre Regulations in November 1981. The Department of Social Welfare, which administers the 1960 Regulations, has revised them in response to this report and to public submissions. It is expected that the new regulations, which are with the Law Draughtsman, will be issued by Government in 1984. They introduce higher standards of care which child care centres must reach before they can be licensed by the department.

A form of assistance to working parents was introduced in the 1978 Social Security Amendment Act, Section 32, which came into force on 10 January 1979. This allowed a single parent in receipt of an income-tested benefit to receive an additional income exemption of up to $20 a week to meet day-care costs.

Between 1973 - 81, the child care capitation subsidy rose from $4.50 to $15.50 per week per child and was paid to approved voluntary organisations operating or supporting day-care centres and family day-care schemes, but not directly to private day-care centres. In 1981 new administrative procedures were introduced, and while parents needed to complete a statement of their income and commitments in order to establish their eligibility for subsidy on financial grounds, the subsidy was made available to all centres direct. Government contribution towards fees was increased from $15.50 to $18 per week from 1 September 1982.

There has been an expansion of child care services and an increased take-up of subsidy in the early 1980s, as the following table shows:

Full-day Child Care Centres 1975-83

	No of licensed full day centres	No of full day places
At 31.12.75	185	4,312
At 31.12.76	203	4,617
At 31.12.77	201	4,721
At 31.12.78	191	4,704
At 31.12.79	193	4,862
At 31.3.81	205	5,300
At 31.3.82	228	5,759
At 31.3.83	239	6,366

In addition, in the last few years, at least 30 family day care projects have been approved which provide places for between 2,600 and 3,000 children, and 50 Kohanga Reo or Maori "language nests" are now registered as child care centres.

In 1983, Government approved a reconstruction of the child care subsidy programme. The new programme includes annual trained supervisor grants, annual trained staff grants, annual training incentive grants for supervisors, and an annual grant towards child care training programmes of the New Zealand Child Care Association and towards its administrative costs.

The child care subsidy to families whose children attend a centre for a minimum of 12 1/2 hours a week continues to be paid in respect of children whose parents are unable to afford the full cost of child care. There are now three different rates of subsidy, of $12, $15 and $18 per week for families whose incomes fall within different ranges, and for full or part-time attendance. The subsidy may also be paid regardless of the parent's income if a child needs child care for specific welfare or related reasons. Similar subsidies are available for children placed by their parents in approved family day care projects. Provision was made in the new programme for the Department of Social Welfare to employ additional specialist child care social workers.

The 1983 programme goes some way towards implementing recommendations of the June 1980 Report of the State Services Commission Working Group on Early Childhood Care and Education which emphasised the need for trained staff in child care centres and recommended a goal of 50% funding of costs to parents, with priority being given to salary subsidies.

Government also makes two tax rebates available for child care costs - the Donations and School Fees Rebate of 31% up to a maximum of $200 a year for costs incurred at a child care centre, and the Housekeeper Rebate of up to $310 a year, available for any form of child care costs.

01412
38

With regard to the quality of care provided by child care centres, the New Zealand Association of Child Care Centres comments:

> "The figures on the availability of child care do not indicate the quality of the care given. In order for working parents to feel confident about leaving their children in care, they need to be assured that the centre is "good".....
>
> "This means ensuring that staff : child ratios are satisfactory, trained staff are required, maximum centre size is controlled, etc.....
>
> "At present, the quality of care can vary considerably from centre to centre, although this should improve dramatically over the next few years with the influx of new graduates from both the pre-service and expanded in-service training."

Annex N

WORLD CONFERENCE/UN DECADE FOR WOMEN: QUESTIONNAIRE TO GOVERNMENTS PART II

Extracts

RURAL DEVELOPMENT

1 Integration of Women in Rural Development Policies and Strategies

2 Women's access to Agricultural Education, Training and Extension

3 Women's access to Land, Water and Natural Resources

4 Women's Participation in Rural Organisations

5 Women's access to Agricultural Credits, Inputs and Services

6 Concluding Comments on Rural Women

NEW ZEALAND RESPONSE JUNE 1984

01462
2

1 INTEGRATION OF WOMEN IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT POLICIES AND STRATEGIES

01462
3

As in many other countries rural women have tended to comprise a sector of the population which may be easily overlooked by urban based planners and policy makers.

Rural women were not singled out for special attention in the 1975 Report of the Select Committee on Women's Rights, although rural women themselves corrected the balance by presenting the findings of a small regional survey carried out by a branch of the Women's Division of Federated Farmers at the 1975 non-government United Women's Convention. Because of the dearth of information on rural sociology and the 'information gap' on a significant group of women, the Sociology Department of the University of Canterbury and the Women's Division of Federated Farmers undertook a major survey, also in 1975. A report The Rural Women of New Zealand was published, its preliminary results having been presented at the 1976 Conference on Women in Social and Economic Development.

The report drew attention to the lack of pre-school facilities in rural areas, school transport problems, and the need for further adult education opportunities for rural women, who are likely to have more school education than their husbands or urban women, and who would appreciate academic courses, farm accounting or bookkeeping courses, nd training courses for future off-farm jobs. The possibility of part-time paid employment off farm was raised, e.g. for trained nurses and teachers, as well as better economic recognition of women's unpaid work on farm. Farm women participate in farm decision-making, and the reported noted that commercial firms and farm advisors should be aware of this. The report also suggested that recreational activities, such as sport, handcrafts and hobby classes for women could be offered in community halls, and pointed out that rural women have the organisational abilities which could be utilised in community based programmes.

This remains the most comprehensive piece of research carried out; two more recent publications are Women are in Agriculture (1982) the results of a questionnaire on women's work on farms designed by Dr Ruth Gasson of the University of London, and published in Federated Farmers of New Zealand's newspaper "Straight Furrow", and Problems and Prospects for Women on Farms (Studies in Rural Change No 9, University of Canterbury 1983), papers from a seminar sponsored by the North Canterbury Branch of the National Council of Women and the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries in response to identified financial stress in the farming community and its effect on family life. Although triggered by a draught in North Canterbury the seminar did not only deal with financial crisis, but also aimed to give recognition to women's role in farming and to identify problems faced and ways of solving them through the community.

01462
4

Currently, the Women in Agriculture Network functions under the auspices of the Government's Advisory Committee on Women's Affairs. The network has evolved from a "Focus on Women in Agriculture" initiated by a group of women with an interest in agriculture, education or employment who began meeting in the offices of the Committee on Women in 1981. The Focus aimed:

1 To increase awareness of the existence of women in agriculture and the agriculture-related industries. This means making the women who are already working in agriculture more visible:

- In television and radio programmes;
- In newspaper and magazine articles;
- In school textbooks, which should have illustrations of working women as well as of men and which should avoid using language which excludes women, such as the 'farmer and his family' where words like 'farmers and their families' or 'farming families' would be more suitable and accurate;
- In any display or informative material used to promote and illustrate agriculture or working people;
- In schools and training institutions where women speakers and instructors should be used to encourage girls and women to make informed decisions about future job choice.

2 To influence attitudes and policies to ensure that women have equality of access to employment and general participation in the agricultural sector. This means:

- Giving women an opportunity to define their own needs;

- Encouraging training opportunities for women who need to acquire new skills;

- Drawing attention to areas where women are discriminated against, not only in the workforce but in areas like law and finance;

- Encouraging women to participate in agricultural decision-making, on and off farm;

- Working towards seeing our aims as part of the policy of all educational, agricultural and decision-making bodies.

A planning group evolved, which lobbied for the appointment of a second woman to the mainly male National Consultative Committee on Agriculture in Schools, adapted Dr Casson's survey for use in New Zealand, encouraged women to take cases of

01462
5

discrimination to the Human Rights Commission, made contact with educational institutions and agencies to ascertain to what extent women's needs were met, and began to decentralise through a series of seminars, workshops and meetings for rural women.

01462
6

Obstacles encountered to date have included:

- rural women's "invisibility" (which was why the Focus on Women in Agriculture was initiated)

- a lack of recognition of the need for special programmes for rural women

- attitudinal discrimination against women seeking employment in 'non-traditional' areas of agriculture, or seeking to gain equal participation in public decision making, etc.

- the lack of resources, both human and financial, which often besets women's projects.

These areas all overlap considerably, the existence of any one contributing to the existence of the others, though all have been partially overcome - the first three by the ongoing activities of rural activists and organisations, and the latter by close co-operation between existing groups and institutions. All, to some degree, remain and the Women in Agriculture network is currently considering an approach to the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries to develop closer co-operation with "the system".

01462
11

2 NUMBER OF RURAL EXTENSION WORKERS EMPLOYED BY THE MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE AND FISHERIES (MAF).

Occupational Class	30 March 1976			30 March 1983		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Farm Advisory Officers	313 (98%)	6 (2%)	319	345 (89%)	44 (11%)	389
Ag Field Services Officers	128 (91%)	12 (9%)	140	171 (95%)	8 (5%)	179
Ag & Fish Field Officers	52 (98%)	1 (2%)	53	109 (87%)	16 (13%)	125
Farm Dairy Instructors	88 (99%)	1 (1%)	89	81 (99%)	1 (1%)	82
Livestock Instructors	443(100%)	-	443	306(99%)	2 (1%)	308
TOTAL	1024 (98%)	20 (2%)	1044	1012 (93%)	71 (7%)	1083

MAF Policy is that it will provide all staff with the training needed (off and on the job) to reach the standard of competency required for their position. All rural extension workers in MAF receive in-service training.

Numbers of females among persons receiving professional certificates, diplomas and university degrees in the following fields:

Lincoln University College of Agriculture has supplied the following figures:

0146Z
12

	(In 1976) Certificate			Diploma *			Degree		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Agriculture/ Horticulture	Nil	Nil	Nil	196	29	225	94	10	104
Agriculture/ Horticulture	Nil	Nil	Nil	262	98	360	187	41	228

* includes post-graduate diplomas.

One of the most outstanding features of the Lincoln College student body in the past two decades has been the rise in the number and percentage of women students.

"Enrolled students" (as distinct from those 'receiving certificates' etc) numbers have risen from women as 5% of the student body in 1960 to 27% of the 1983 total roll.

In part this increase is due to the national trend towards young women investigating a wider range of career options, but Lincoln College has also emphasised the place in "land use" occupations for women to schools and the community, and up until about two years ago gave women students a top priority in acess to halls of residence. Although there is no formal additional provision for women students, in areas such as finding jobs to fulfil the practical work requirements of their courses, staff tend to give women students more help, knowing that for a variety of reasons it can be more difficult for them to get jobs.

Several women students have also undertaken minor research assignments on aspects of women in agriculture.

Lincoln College offers courses for women through its rural extension and development service (See Appendix III WAg MAg, a newsletter for Women in Agriculture), and also short courses (eg the 12 weeks 'Certificate in Wool') where women are having an increasing impact. In the 1983 Certificate in Wool 21 of the 63 students were women. Of the 21, 81% gained A or B passes, compared with 67% for men.

The following breakdown of figures on students receiving professional qualifications in agriculture has been supplied by Massey University from the graduate employment surveys undertaken annually.

	1976			1983		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Undergraduate Diplomas						
Diploma in Agriculture	45		45	52	4	56
Diploma in Horticulture	35	11	46	69	53	102
Diploma in Wool Tech	9	3	12	13	7	20

01462
13

	1976			1983		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Undergraduate Degrees						
Batchelor of Agriculture	5		5	32	4	36
Batchelor of Agricultural Sc.	45	2	47	55	12	67
Batchelor of Horticulture	2	1	3	2	4	6
Batchelor of Horticultural Sc.	10	9	19	19	20	39
Batchelor of Agric. Econ.	Not offered			3	1	4
Post Graduate Diplomas						
Diploma in Agric. Sc.	4	1	5	6		6
Diploma in Hort Sc.				3	4	7
Post Graduate Degrees						
Masterate of Agric. Sc.	15		15	12	1	13
Masterate of Hort Sc.	2		2	2	1	3
Masterate of Philosophy				1		1
Ph.D.				2		2
Undergraduate Certificates in Seed Technology	7	6	13	9	8	17

As with Lincoln, Massey notes no formal measures aimed at increasing the number of women trained in agriculture but points out that, (as in other disciplines) the vast majority of awards and scholarships are available to both male and female students, and some, eg those offered by the New Zealand Federation of University Women, offer scholarships for women to study in New Zealand and overseas.

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14

3 WOMEN'S ACCESS TO LAND, WATER AND NATURAL RESOURCES

A parent may dispose of his or her estate under a will in such a manner as he or she considers appropriate. If a parent dies without making a will all of the children are entitled to an equal share of the estate under the statutory rules on intestacy. However in both cases any child of a deceased parent can apply to the court under the Family Protection Act 1955, if adequate provision has not been made for his or her maintenance and support, and the court can make an order varying the shares of the children.

Where a husband has made a will, it is a fairly common practice, if there are no children, for the widow to be left most of the estate and if there are children, for the widow to have a life interest in the property comprising the estate which then passes to the children on her death. If a husband dies intestate the widow is entitled to the personal chattels and a legacy of $50,000 with the balance of the estate being divided between the widow who receives a 1/3 share and the children who receive a 2/3 share. If there are no children and the husband's parents have died then she is entitled to the entire estate.

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15

A widow can also apply to the Court under the Family Protection Act 1955.

We do not have a customary system of land tenure in New Zealand.

Maori women are shareholders and successors to tribal lands.

6 CONCLUDING COMMENTS ON RURAL WOMEN

Changes in the role of rural women, as in the role of New Zealand women generally have been brought about by the legislative programme (see Part I Section C) which has provided for women's equality, and by the activities of individuals and women's organisations which have pressed for change and encouraged women to take advantage of their rights and opportunities, and of training and advice which is available.

The concept of family involvement in a rural enterprise is important to both Maori and non-Maori families. Mrs Hine Potaka, a former National President of the Maori Women's Welfare League, who grows kiwifruit in a family enterprise, believes Maori women have sensitivity and patience, a good idea of plants, and above all a spiritual feeling for the land.

Major achievement of the Decade has probably been the process of identification of rural women as a group whose changing role reflects their position in a sector of the economy which is also undergoing rapid change. While many rural women enjoy and value their way of life, (See Appendix I) many also want recognition as full working partners in farm based enterprises, and have articulated their desire for better access to training and information, consultation and representation.

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19

A discussion paper has recently been prepared in the Department of Social Welfare on "Rural Social Work", to assist in staff training. It states that it is a specialist field of social work which has become more significant with the move of people back to rural areas as a result of the Government's energy projects, and because people are looking for a cheaper place to live in the present economic climate. It suggests that this movement places a stress on rural services because the population may increase quite rapidly and because people from urban centres have higher expectations of services than rural dwellers have.

Women working in agriculture frequently carry heavy workloads, combining home and family responsibilities with paid or unpaid employment on and off farm and their participation in community activities.

Most rural Maori women are the upholders of tribal and cultural traditions and the whanau (extended family) life.

It is difficult at this stage to envisage long term solutions and measures which should of necessity include the full participation of rural women without increasing their already heavy workload.

However, it is hoped that the process of consultation will continue, and relationships between women's organisations and other agencies in the field will be strengthened.